

The Nation.

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The Week.

WHEN Messrs. Conkling and Platt resigned there was apparently no doubt in their followers' minds, and perhaps none in theirs, that they would be triumphantly re-elected. In a few days, however, it became plain that the opposition to this would be formidable if not fatal, and their friends then gave out that both of them were tired of public life and did not seek re-election. There was something touching in the view taken of the matter by some of Mr. Conkling's henchmen, as showing how impossible it is for them to conceive that the great man at whose frown they have so often trembled in "politics" may not be an equally great man everywhere else. We have heard of one of them anticipating a great fall in stocks when the news of the resignation reached Wall Street. When it seemed likely that the chief might not be or would not wish to be re-elected, they made pathetic little efforts to throw dignity around his retirement by telling of the wonderful things he would do in private life. One of their stories was that he had been invited to enter a law-firm in this city with a "guaranteed income of \$50,000" a year. Of course tales of this kind are not legitimate subjects of criticism, but we will suggest to the henchmen that this particular tale would be made much more effective by naming the law-firm. Any name will do.

There was a conference of Mr. Conkling and his leading adherents in this city on Sunday, at which he relieved their anxiety by putting himself unreservedly "into the hands of his friends," or, in other words, saying that, instead of accepting that wonderful "law-partnership," he would be a candidate for re-election. Mr. Platt made a similar announcement, thus upsetting the story that the angry stockholders of his express company insisted on his coming back to the duties of the presidency. Mr. Conkling has incontinently gone to Albany to "take command of his forces," or, in other words, to intrigue for votes in the Senate and Assembly. At this writing it is reported that enough Administration Republicans have signed a pledge not to go into a nominating caucus to make an election at this session of the Legislature impossible. But the Conklingites answer that if this happens the Governor will call an extra session, and will continue to call one till they do their duty, and if the party loses the election in consequence this fall the "Half-Breeds" will, as the cause of it, be politically damned. It is, however, useless to attempt to follow in detail the current of rumor and counter-rumor which flows through the daily press from the mêlée at Albany. The main facts are that Conkling and Platt are engaged in the ridiculous business of lobbying for an office they have just resigned, and that their opponents are suffering from want of cohesion and leadership, and that the final result is still uncertain. If re-elected it is certain that Mr. Conkling will go back shorn of most of his influence, and Mr. Platt will go back still more insignificant than when he came away. The only new feature the Conklingites have thus far introduced into the contest is the doctrine that Conkling is the champion of the "Anti-Monopoly movement," while Blaine is the agent of the "soulless corporations." This is not a bad idea.

"Organs" are queer things. The Albany *Express* is the great Stalwart organ, and does the State printing, and believes "the Machine" to be a semi-divine institution. On Monday, however, it astonished the Stalwarts by a leaded paragraph expressing the deepest sorrow at Mr. Conkling's putting himself up for re-election, alleging that he was "belittling" himself and exposing himself to "humiliation" in so doing, and that he "had better keep out of it." During the day, however, the editor got sorry, said he wrote this passage late at night

under the influence of deep "emotion," and on Tuesday he declared that he was for Conkling and Platt first and last, and "heartily approved and endorsed their course," and appealed to the Legislature to support them. In other spheres of human activity such a sudden change as this would destroy a man's influence, but in "politics" and "journalism" the last paragraph is just as valuable and influential as if the first had never been written.

In response to a serenade at Albany, the other night, Judge Robertson enumerated the reasons for mutual congratulation. These were: the abolition of the "unit rule" at the party conventions; the defeat of the third-term project; the establishment of the principle of district representation at Chicago; and the reaffirmance, at Washington, of the President's constitutional right "to nominate to the Senate, and to have such nomination considered by the Senate." He saw in these achievements the dawning of a better day in politics, when there should be independence of thought and action without dread of instant political decapitation. Now, there is no illusion about these signs, which really mark so many stages in the decline of the Boss; but the Judge overlooked the discouraging symptom of the event he was celebrating, which was that his appointment was made on Boss principles and (so far as appears) on no other, and again, to all appearance, by a Maine Boss instead of a New York Boss. Moreover, such independence of thought and action as has already flourished at the Custom-house under the present régime is now trembling in its boots because of the manner of his appointment; and not one of his future subordinates is at this moment free from the dread of capricious decapitation, no matter how slavish his thought or action may be. There would have been some cause for rejoicing if the new Collector had capped the climax of his felicitations by announcing a little programme with but two articles, namely, the abolition of assessments at the Custom-house, and the retention of the existing system of competitive examinations.

Vice-President Arthur's open and active conspiring with Conkling and Platt for their return to the Senate greatly heightens the indecency of the present situation. He is another illustration of the folly of "magnanimity" in politics like ours, having been foisted upon the Chicago Convention by ex-Governor Dennison, of Ohio, the head of the late Sherman delegation. This act, as devoid of delicacy as of principle, finds its proper reward in General Arthur's endorsement of the contemptuous and insulting contents of the letter of resignation, and of the resignation itself as a means of giving the President a slap in the face—for this, from Mr. Garfield's point of view, is all that Conkling's re-election would mean. Since Calhoun's breach with Jackson in 1831 there has been nothing to compare with Mr. Arthur's behavior; and that at least was dignified by personal jealousy and ambition, while Mr. Arthur's opposition to President Garfield is purely vicarious. Under our Constitution, the Vice-President, so closely identified with the Administration in the canvass and in the election, afterwards becomes reasonably independent in his own sphere, and Calhoun did not feel called upon to resign until it suited his convenience to represent his State once more in the body over which he presided; but the rupture was immediately followed by the reorganization of the Cabinet, which contained several of his partisans. It would be too much to hope that the defeat of his political creator will cause General Arthur to follow him into retirement, and on the other hand there is no reason to fear that Mr. Garfield will ask the resignation of the Postmaster-General. We wish we could add that the present scandal will probably be a solemn warning to party conventions to bestow as much thought and prayer on their choice for the second as for the first place on their ticket. But the country's experience of prompted Vice-Presidents ought long ago to have induced this, and yet has completely failed to do so.

Mr. William E. Chandler's nomination for the Solicitor-Generalship has, we are glad to say, been rejected. This retains Mr. Phillips, a very competent man, whom there was not the slightest excuse for superseding, in his place, and probably retains Mr. MacVeagh in the Cabi-

net. No more discreditable change has ever been attempted in the public service by any Boss of them all. It is stoutly maintained now that Mr. Chandler is a lawyer, and has conducted several important cases. But we believe his law business was always of a quasi-political kind, and there was so little of it compared to his lobbying business that it is not wonderful that a good many people who thought themselves very familiar with his career did not know he was a lawyer at all. The mere fact that there should have been a dispute as to whether he was or was not a lawyer is a good illustration of the character of the nomination for such an office as the Solicitor-Generalship. We hope the President has now got through with these nondescript nominations, and that he will give us either civil-service reform or the old-fashioned "slaughter," "tomahawk," and "war-club" system—that is to say, either conduct the Government in the character of a sensible business man in a civilized community, or in that of a Mandingo chief treating his court beauties to a butchery of prisoners after a victory.

Two appointments among those confirmed by the Senate before adjournment (and it acted favorably upon all the President's nominations except Chandler's) deserve special mention. One was that of Mr. Bruce, the colored ex-Senator from Mississippi, to be Register of the Treasury; and the other that of Dr. George B. Loring, of Massachusetts, to be Commissioner of Agriculture, in place of General Le Duc. The vote on Mr. Bruce showed that he had won the entire respect of his colleagues from both sections, and that his fitness for the position may be presumed. Dr. Loring's capacity is, if not notorious, independent of the Senate's approval. We trust that in his hands the department will quietly establish its claim to higher public estimation, which it will best do by sustaining and strengthening its scientific corps. For example, the present entomologist is a most indefatigable investigator, whose two years' service, it is hardly extravagant to say, shows more solid results than can be gathered from the entire previous history of the department. His volume on cotton insects is, for one year's work, a marvel of industry and originality. No one is more competent than Dr. Loring to exhibit the practical, paying value of researches like these, which are nevertheless purely scientific, and the more he can fortify the department with such men and such evidences of their worth to the agricultural class, the more he will elevate it in the eyes of Congressmen, upon whom its future dignity and usefulness depend. Dr. Loring, by the way, has had no predecessor of anything like his intellectual accomplishments, as should in due time appear in his reports.

Pending the investigation which ex-Senator Dorsey demanded at the hands of Mr. James the New York Times is pursuing its revelations of the Star-route frauds, and, so far as the public is concerned, performing a service very similar to that desired. In its issue of the 19th inst. it gives details of the way in which the Dorsey combination managed several contracts that ought to satisfy a not unreasonable curiosity. The contract for Route No. 39,104, for example, was awarded to Miner, Dorsey's former partner, at \$1,748; he sublet it, of course, immediately to one Pool, with whom he bargained to have the work done on the original schedule for \$1,200, and under the expected increase of service to seven trips a week for \$7,560. This ensured Miner a respectable profit, since the *pro rata* for the increased service would be \$12,236. The service was increased and expedited as expected. Miner got rid of Pool, whose contract was terminated because he failed to do the work properly, and sublet the job elsewhere at a profit to himself of something like \$6,000. A singular point in this case is that, whereas, by the usual method of calculating increased pay for increased service and reduced time his increase would have, according to his estimates of horses and men, reached \$20,976, he announced to the department that he would accept \$7,866—a circumstance which shows the flagrant character of the ordinary computation in such cases. For Route No. 38,113, in Colorado, John W. Dorsey got the contract, and finally ex-Senator Dorsey the sub-contract. The particulars as to moneys are substantially the same as above, but it appears that here the service was frequently not performed at all, and that, though Dorsey should have been declared a "failing contractor," he never was, and, so far as the

records show, is now drawing pay from the route in question. This was originally \$1,700 a year, and was raised to \$31,981.

The Mayor announces that he will do the best he can to have the city cleaned under the provisions of the new conference bill, which will probably become a law. At the same time he points out the defects of the measure, which it is clear has been accepted by the Citizens' party in the Legislature simply because of the impossibility of getting a better bill through, and because a continuance of the present state of affairs would be intolerable. The bill provides for the appointment by the Mayor of a "Commissioner of Street-Cleaning," subject to confirmation by any two members of the Board of Health. His term is fixed at six years, and removal requires concurrent action of the Mayor and Health Board. As Mr. Grace says, the provision of the Citizens' bill placing the power of removal and appointment exclusively in the hands of the mayor was "the vital principle of the whole measure." At present it happens that one of the Health Commissioners is President of the Police Board, and the man of all who blocked the Citizens' bill; a second belongs to the State government and is only *ex-officio* a member of the Commission, and a third is an officer whose term has expired. It is as absurd to endow these gentlemen, who have and can have nothing in the world to do with cleaning the streets, with the power of appointment and removal, continues the Mayor, "as if the Governor were obliged to submit his nominations for State officers to the harbor-masters, port-wardens, or the State Board of Health." The probable working of the measure in the event of a necessity for removing the Street Commissioner is clearly enough described by Mr. Grace, as well as other defects of the bill which he thinks "sufficient to cause a failure of the new system," and to "deter men of recognized public merit from risking their reputation in dealing with this subject." It is very evident, all things considered, that the conference bill is a *pis-aller*, but little better, though superficially fairer-looking, than the Carpenter bill for which it is substituted.

Of the \$196,000,000 6 per cent. bonds on which the option to extend at 3½ per cent. expired on the 20th instant all were extended except \$16,000,000, and these will be paid in cash on and after July 1, as they are presented. It is likely that these \$16,000,000 were scattered about in the hands of persons who did not know that the bonds are to be paid off if not extended, as no other reason can be conceived for refusing to accept so advantageous an offer. During the week the applications for the extension of 5 per cent. registered bonds ran up to \$250,000,000, the limit to which extensions of this class of bonds will be permitted by the Treasury; the remaining \$75,000,000 of registered 5's the Treasury reserves for absolute payment out of surplus revenues. The only other 5 per cent. bonds outstanding are \$120,000,000 of coupon issues. The holders of these have until July 1 to elect whether they will take cash for them or extend at 3½ per cent.; although applications for extension of these are not expected to be large until the latter part of June, yet about \$15,000,000 have already applied for the continuance at the reduced rate. Altogether the refunding scheme of the present Administration has literally worked like a charm. The new 3½ per cent. bonds, which represent the extended 6's, have advanced in the market to 104 to 104½, and the coupon 5 per cents, now the only bonds for which 3½'s can be obtained, continue to be sought here and in the foreign markets.

It is likely that as the result of refunding the 5 and 6 per cent. bonds fully \$100,000,000 of the cash in the Treasury will be paid out this year; the calculation being that \$75,000,000 will come out for registered 5's, \$16,000,000 for 6 per cents, and perhaps \$15,000,000 for coupon 5's. The volume of lawful money in the country was never so large as now, the figures showing an increase of \$46,000,000 since January, and over \$300,000,000 since July 1, 1879; and the gain has been more in gold than in any other item. The outlook for the loan market has, therefore, been such as to encourage speculation, and this during the week has been buoyant at the Stock Exchange. Immigration continues to be enormous, and the arrivals at this port during this month bid fair to ex-

ceed the total of some years in the last decade. The railroads are generally rather more than maintaining the enormous business of last year; some of them show important gains. The general trade of the country is good, and thus far the crops look well. In London, money is also very abundant, and speculation is raging there with a strong preference for American railway stocks. The foreign demand for these during the week was sufficient to lower the rates for sterling bills a cent a pound-sterling during the week, and to leave them about midway between the gold-importing and the gold-exporting point.

The Irish Land Bill was read a second time on Thursday last, after the defeat of a condemnatory resolution offered by Lord Elcho by a vote of 352 to 176, which is a larger majority than the Government expected. They only counted on 100, and Mr. Parnell, who left the House without voting and took eighteen followers with him, was expected to take twenty-seven or thirty. Parnell's tactics are based on the theory that he and his friends must not assume any responsibility for the bill as it stands, and he has written a passionate appeal to Archbishop Croke, of Cashel, who is the only high dignitary of the Catholic Church who stands by the Land League, urging him to support him in taking this position.

The bill now goes into the Committee of the Whole. Every member can speak as often as he pleases, and there are, it is said, about one thousand amendments ready to be offered, and it will be impossible to apply the new "urgency" rules to cut off debate without endangering the bill. Mr. Gladstone's prospects for the summer cannot, therefore, be called cheerful. The only speech of marked importance in the debate on the second reading was that of Mr. Shaw Lefevre, who has long been an authority on the land question. He made a most telling point by showing, from the report of the Bessborough Commission, that even if the testimony of the tenants be altogether excluded, that of the landlords and land-agents alone supplies ample proof of the existence of the insecurity of tenure which the bill is intended to remedy. A remarkable addition to the literature of the subject has been made, too, in a memorial of the ministers of the General Assembly of the Irish Presbyterian Church of Ireland, who live mainly in the North. They say they are attached to the British Crown and connection, but declare that their parishioners, the farmers of Ulster, are pervaded by a "deep, widespread, and growing discontent" with the Irish land-tenure; that "the ancient custom called the Ulster tenant-right has been from time to time curtailed, and is now rarely seen in its entirety"; that rents, even on the estates of good landlords, are excessive, and absorb the tenant's improvements; that a good land system would put an end to outrages and make coercive legislation unnecessary, but that, while highly approving of the spirit and general principles of the bill now pending, some of its provisions would work great mischief.

The proofs that the Coercion Bill is a failure multiply every week, and already supply ample justification for the *Pall Mall Gazette's* contention that it is useless to pass such bills, if the state of public opinion is such that you cannot follow them up by any use of force you may deem necessary. About sixty persons have been arrested under it, but public opinion will not permit of their imprisonment being made in any sense rigorous, and accordingly the penalty has no terrors in it. In the meantime the attempts to eject tenants for non-payment of rent, which many landlords are making, are producing the effect one might naturally expect, when one considers that the bill is intended to prevent such ejectments, and that the Ministry tried to prevent them by a special bill last year. Resistance to the bailiffs and to all concerned in executing the process, and outrages on them, are reported in great numbers from various parts of the country. In the county Limerick matters have come, to use Mr. Gladstone's phrase, "within a measurable distance of civil war." The mob seized and fortified an old castle, from which the large military escort which had accompanied the bailiff to the scene of action were unable to dislodge them without artillery, and to prevent the arrival of artillery the bridges were broken down in their rear. Of course the Government recoils from bloodshed,

and, after a futile attempt to starve out the insurgents, the troops were withdrawn, leaving the impression that they had been foiled, and intensifying the excitement. Cromwell would have made short work of such a situation, but then Cromwell's methods are no longer available, and unless they are available, threatening a whole community with an armed force is useless. Mr. Gladstone cannot, as Carlyle says, present "the truth" to the Irish the way Cromwell presented it, and they are now revelling in "falsehood" and in contempt of the "veracities."

The situation has been aggravated by Lord Salisbury's first indiscretion since he became leader of the Conservatives, and we may be sure plenty more are to follow. It was so glaring that the Conservative organs have already condemned it in strong terms. In discussing the relations of the House of Lords to the Commons he maintained that, while it might be improper for the Lords to hold out against the popular will clearly expressed through the Commons, there were occasions when the Commons did not express the will of their constituencies, and that on such occasions the Lords would be justified in resisting, and he intimated that the attempt to pass the Land Bill was one of these occasions. This, of course, is taken to mean that he will probably advise the Lords to throw it out, or modify it into nothingness, which would lead to a very exciting if not dangerous struggle, if the Ministry had to dissolve Parliament. It intensifies the lamentations of the moderate Tories over Lord Beaconsfield's death, as he, it is maintained, would have cajoled the stiff-necked peers into passing the bill, and would have furnished them with a neat assortment of reasons for doing so.

On Thursday Gambetta succeeded in procuring the adoption by the French Chamber of the *scrutin de liste*, but in order to do it he had to take the floor himself and make one of his impassioned speeches, which no French audience seems able to resist, although the opposition in the Assembly, as the vote shows, was strong. The resolution to take up the bill was only carried, in spite of Gambetta's eloquence, by 243 to 235, but the subsequent majority on the final passage was large, a stampede taking place among its opponents as soon as it was plainly inevitable. It probably seals the fate of a great many small local notables, who will have little chance of finding a place on a general departmental ticket, and this doubtless accounts in a considerable degree for the size of the minority against it. For the reasons we gave last week the adoption of the general ticket will introduce a discipline into the Republican party not hitherto witnessed, and give the managers in Paris a control of the majority such as they have never had. It undoubtedly means that after the coming election Gambetta will not refuse to form a Ministry. He will probably be returned by several departments, and be thus designated as the proper leader of the party in the Chamber. The situation then created will be a very difficult one for M. Grévy, and, in fact, for any one occupying the Presidency. It will probably lead to a more thorough discussion of the office than it has ever received.

It is difficult to say what course the present Emperor is pursuing in Russia. The reported determination to establish some kind of small representative body has as yet produced no result. It has been reported with equal particularity that a change in the position of the ministers had been determined on by the conversion of the heads of departments into a homogeneous or "solid" cabinet, deliberating and resolving in common, instead of the present system, by which each minister is responsible simply to the Emperor. General Melikoff was elected president of it, but he resigned soon after and was succeeded by General Ignatieff, and the exact state of affairs seems to be as uncertain as ever. The Nihilists, however, appear to take it for granted that the reactionary policy is to be persisted in, and have distributed in Easter eggs copies of another proclamation, warning the Emperor that they mean to pursue him with the old weapons, and will not be satisfied with anything short of the admission of popular representatives to a share in the Government.

POPULAR LESSONS OF THE CONKLING ROW.

THERE is now no doubt that even if Messrs. Conkling and Platt be re-elected they will be re-elected with difficulty, and only as the result of considerable exertion on their own part and on that of their immediate followers. Their re-election will consequently not be in any proper sense a vindication. A vindication, under such circumstances, in order to be effective has to come spontaneously. If it has to be procured by vigorous lobbying it cannot have much, if any, moral weight. Therefore it is safe to say that the victory in the late contest over Mr. Robertson rests with the Administration. The President has got the better of the New York Senator, and has his own man in the Custom-house, and has had no difficulty in getting the Senate (after Mr. Conkling's withdrawal) to recognize the completeness of his discretion in the matter of nominations. Now, in our view the whole affair has been from beginning to end unnecessary. There was no need whatever of a change in the New York Custom-house. There was no complaint against the present Collector. He is not a follower or dependent of Mr. Conkling's, and if the Administration wished to testify its hostility to Mr. Conkling's ascendancy in State politics it could not have chosen so effective a mode of doing so as to strengthen and extend the system by which entrance to the public service and promotion while in it are obtained in the Custom-house and Post-office in this city. There can be no better mode of overthrowing the State Boss. It is just as much so as appointing his enemy Mr. Robertson to the Collectorship, and it would have the additional merit of preventing the growth of another Boss. It would satisfy the whole political class who follow and admire Conkling that the system which gave him his power was at an end, and they would all begin to turn their attention to something else than speculation as to the best means of ingratiating themselves with the Boss who they think is going to succeed Conkling.

But this is not all. In resorting to that mode of overthrowing the Boss the President would have kept intact his own reputation for consistency and sincerity. He would have had not only Conkling's enemies and rivals at his back, but he would have had that large, influential, and, indeed, we may say dominating, body of the voters who dislike the ways of political managers and the use of official patronage for party purposes without well knowing how to get rid of it. This class would have hailed any such action on the President's part with immense relief, because it would have seemed not only a justification of their own repugnance to the spoils system, but a suggestion from an authoritative source of the proper remedy. Their satisfaction, too, would have grown stronger every year, and General Garfield would have had, before the close of his term, the confidence and support of that portion of the American people which, in the long run, supplies every party organization with its blood, bone, and sinew, however silent it may be at conventions. As matters stand, he gets only half-hearted support, even from those who most dislike Conkling and his ways. In approving what has been done they are compelled to acknowledge that in doing it General Garfield has diminished their respect for his character, because they are not ready to admit that any man fitted to fill the office of President of the United States can deliberately repudiate professions made up to the very hour of his entering on office, without the existence of some serious defect in his moral constitution. People ordinarily put up with such defects because they live in a world made up in the main of defective people, but they do not forgive a high officer who parades them, and makes them conspicuous in great public acts. His versatile friend Mr. Blaine may assure him that this is all twaddle, and that his tergiversation in this matter will be forgotten very soon, but we venture to challenge a return to the subject in May, 1885, when the public mind on General Garfield's Administration will have been made up, and when he, returning to private life, will be craving the deliberate commendation of the class which he is now setting at naught.

Moreover, we cannot help thinking that it was very bad policy, after he had given up all pretence of being a civil-service reformer, not to follow the advice of his other friend, the Cincinnati *Commercial*, and use the patronage as a "war-club." There is really no middle ground between the use of the public offices simply for the proper conduct of the public business, and the use of them for the "slaughter" of political enemies. The

giving a portion of the New York offices to Conkling, as has been done, and giving the rest to his enemies is a mixture from which it is hardly possible for any good to come. "War" on all Conkling's adherents—absurd as it is as a mode of carrying on a civilized government—would, at least, have the effect of breaking his Machine up completely, and, as we have said, causing his followers to abandon him and take up with some one else. But when they find the Administration giving marshalships, and district-attorneyships, and collectorships to persons whose sole claim to office is drawn from their being "Conkling men," it helps to keep his Machine together, and prevents his followers from dispersing or despairing. It may be magnanimous, or affecting, or magnificent, or what one pleases, but it is not "war." So that here again the President fails to rally to him those who believe in the use of the offices for "slaughter." It is very difficult to say what set or faction of the party the President's policy is giving complete satisfaction to or winning him adherents from. If he does not mean to administer the Government on business principles, the wisest course to pursue is undoubtedly to use it as a "tomahawk" and "scalping-knife," to dismiss from the public service everybody who is Conkling's friend and everybody who refuses to "work" against him, and to have it well understood that nobody who stands in either of these categories has any chance of any place of trust or profit.

What the ultimate effect of the present mélange of "war" and conciliation upon "politics" will be it is hard to say, and we make no pretence of foreseeing. But two results which are likely to be very useful to the cause of good government have already flowed from President Garfield's experiment. One is a complete demonstration of the impossibility of restoring "harmony" by means of offices among persons who have quarrelled about offices. It is now plain to be seen that no two factions of any party can be satisfied by any division of "the spoils" among them. It is plain that under the spoils system only one local leader can be allowed to distribute patronage, and that no leader who bases his authority on "spoils" can ever have "spoils" enough. His followers must always be much more numerous than all the offices in the State, and even if the whole patronage of the Government is placed at his disposal he must leave hundreds unprovided for. To expect him under these circumstances to divide good-humoredly with his enemies is absurd on its face. Mr. Conkling's position, therefore, as a spoilsman addressing persons who believe in the spoils system, is perfectly reasonable. No patronage does him any good as long as his foes get the Custom-house, because the spectacle of the Custom-house in their hands fatally weakens his authority over his followers—that authority being based wholly on the belief that he has or will have the disposal of all the Federal offices.

The other good result of the experiment is the illustration it has afforded the public of the irresistible tendency of the spoils system to run into extremes, and of the impossibility of keeping it within any limits of decency or practicability. We have at the head of the Government at this moment the best equipped public man, as far as intellect and acquirements are concerned, who has held the place for more than half a century. It was natural to expect that his accession to office would be the signal for a revival in his party of interest in the dozens of questions relating to the great moral and material interests of the country which are awaiting legislative treatment either immediately or in the near future. But so great is the momentum which the spoils system has acquired with all classes of politicians, whether from Massachusetts or Texas, that when he convened the Senate for the transaction of executive business he could not get it to do any business. It at once engaged in a "deadlock" over two small offices in its own gift, and remained in this ridiculous attitude before the civilized world for two whole months. He found further that when he undertook to exercise his constitutional right of appointing a Collector at this port without consulting the Senators of the State before making the nomination, these Senators no longer confined themselves to withholding their "consent" and opposing it in the Senate. They treated the failure to obtain their consent beforehand as, in a certain sense, a revolutionary act, which obliged them to quit their seats and lay the whole matter before their constituents in a solemn appeal. Nor was this all. Hitherto ex-Presidents have either retired quietly into private life or have refrained with somewhat ostentatious delicacy from criticising their

successors or asking favors from them. But the momentum of the spoils system has broken down this customary reserve. General Grant, on hearing in Mexico that the offices were not distributed to his liking, wrote General Garfield a very angry private letter, besides one to Senator Jones for publication, in which he complained bitterly that his own dependents had not been provided for, and especially one gentleman who needed an income while he was writing his (General Grant's) life. It is to be observed, too, and we trust has been observed widely, that in all the discussions about offices during the last six months there has not been, either in any utterance of the President, or in the debates in the Senate, or in the Conkling-Platt letter, or in General Grant's letter, the smallest allusion to the object for which the offices of a civilized state exist—the conduct of the public business. No appointment, promotion, or change has been commented on with reference to its effect on the service of the taxpayers. The offices have been constantly talked of as the property of certain individuals, or as existing in the main for their gratification. We venture to say that there is not to be found in the English political records of the eighteenth century during the days of Walpole or of Grafton a franker avowal of this doctrine than is to be found in General Grant's letter to Senator Jones. He asks for General Badeau's appointment very much in the spirit in which Lord Weymouth asked the Duke of Grafton for the lord-lieutenancy of Ireland and the Secretaryship of State for the Northern Department. And he is not greatly to blame; he came into politics a simple soldier, and the view he takes of the uses of the civil offices is simply what he learnt from the statesmen by whom he was surrounded during his two terms. It is the duty of every taxpayer to ask himself soberly, How much further can the spoils system go? What will be its next stage?

FRENCH EXPANSION IN AFRICA.

THE French Chamber of Deputies have ratified the Tunisian treaty which the cavalry extracted from the Bey, by a vote of 453 to 1. This one vote was probably cast by M. Clémenceau, who was the only person who spoke against it, and who two years ago was supposed to be the coming Radical who was to oust M. Gambetta by outdoing him in Radicalism. Since then M. Clémenceau has been consigned to comparative obscurity; first, by the success of the Gambetta campaign against the religious orders, and then by the immense financial success of the kind of republic Gambetta likes. There never was a more remarkable mistake made about the feeling of a community which was abundantly open to observation, than that made by nearly the whole foreign press about the probable effect on the fortunes of the Republic of the enforcement of the decrees against the unauthorized religious orders. Even the English Radicals who were friendliest to the Republic and most hostile to the "clericals," were satisfied that this time Gambetta's followers were making a great blunder, which would alienate the peasantry and develop a strong reactionary feeling. As it turned out, not only did the expulsion of the orders, although attended with many scandalous scenes, excite no popular sympathy for them, but it received at the election of the Councils-General, which followed soon after, the emphatic approval of the country districts. This test, which was as severe a one as could be applied, furnished sufficient proof that Gambetta had nothing to fear as regarded his position towards the Church. The Republic has been abundantly fortified on the financial side by the condition of the revenue, which has been amazing the world by a series of surpluses of increasing magnitude, in spite of the loss of nearly half the wine crop. This left the Republic weak on only one side, that of its foreign policy. It has enjoyed thus far the extraordinary advantage on that side of the presence and activity in the political arena of the generation which fought in the war, and felt the heavy hand of the invader in their homes, and suffered in their pockets through his exactions. The profound love of peace which this left behind was perhaps not new in French annals. It was felt just as fully after 1815, but this time it is accompanied by no bitterness towards the Government. The Republic is not, as the Restoration was, imposed on the country by foreign conquerors. It, in fact, gets all the benefit of the reaction wrought by the war against the policy of adventure by which the Empire had sought to prop itself up. But then the war left the French

humiliated, and humiliated in their tenderest point, and no Government in France is perfectly safe which allows humiliation to become a permanent mental condition. A new generation, too, is coming forward, which does not vividly remember the war. Gambetta's dark allusions, in his speeches on several occasions during the past few years, to the necessity, at some time not named, of some restoration of the national self-esteem by some process which he never described, which the Germans have been so ready to take up as veiled threats, were probably simply intimations that he knew how the nation felt, and that he felt with it, and that the Republic would, in good time, find a balm for the wounded national pride.

On the side of Germany there was plainly little to expect. Every Frenchman who knows anything of the conditions of an armed struggle with Germany, knows that "revenge" is hopeless either for the generation now on the stage or for that which is coming. The eastern frontier bristles with fortresses such as the world has never seen, and behind them lies an army as large as that which invaded France, as well organized, and which in the next conflict would probably be as well led, because it would be led by younger men. Nothing was more remarkable about the German success in 1870 than the fact that it was achieved by old generals. It is safe to believe that the young officers whom Moltke has bred—for Moltke is not simply a great strategist, but the head of a military school—will be men of as great skill and daring as those who directed the operations of the last war. In the next conflict, too, Austria would undoubtedly stand behind Germany, if need be, as a reserve, instead of, as in 1870, as an ill-wishing spectator. In fact, as far as human foresight can go, the future which France has so long cherished is closed to her on the Rhine. Expansion towards the east has become impossible. Germany has at last recovered from the Thirty Years' War, and has probably irrevocably made the French frontier coincident with the line of the French tongue. If the French passion for cutting a considerable figure in the world outside their own territory is to be gratified, it must be gratified elsewhere than on the Continent of Europe, and it seems now most likely that the seizure of Tunis—for that is really what the chastisement of the Kroumirs amounts to—means that Gambetta is satisfied that Africa is the proper theatre hereafter for it. That portion of the nation which has any historical memory, and which in France has probably more political influence than in most others, has never become reconciled to the loss of America and of India, and the gravity of the loss is brought home to them every day by the enormous spread of the German and English language and influence. The Germans have built up a great empire, and will, it is thought, be very likely to extend it in the near future by the annexation of Holland, and it may be of Switzerland. They have planted enterprising mercantile colonies all over the globe. The English have taken possession of the continent of North America, of the islands of the Pacific, and of the southern end of Africa. Both German and English have already ousted French from the position of supremacy which it held among the languages of the civilized world from the middle of the seventeenth century down to our own time. The Slavs, too, have risen from their slumber, and bid fair to found a homogeneous community which will stretch from the gates of Vienna and the Baltic Sea to the Caspian. All through the Levant the Greeks and Italians are contending for industrial and commercial supremacy with a vigor which neither race has displayed for more than three hundred years. This spectacle of foreign growth and diffusion and activity is something to which no amount of internal prosperity can reconcile Frenchmen, and Gambetta, though of Italian origin, seems to possess in a high degree that capacity for knowing how Frenchmen feel which was one of the most marvellous gifts of that other great Italian, the first Napoleon.

The annexation of Tunis, which will certainly come before long, seems the best mode by which the Republic can gratify the country in its foreign relations. Algeria is at last proving a success, so great a success that its chief defect seems to be that it does not cover more of the coast. With Tunis it will cover nearly all that is necessary to make French supremacy incontestable. In possession of both, France will have the northern half of the African continent for her oyster, if she chooses to set herself to open it, in which she can find work for her soldiers, engineers, colonists, and speculators during the next half-cen-

tury. It is not improbable that she will within the next ten years connect the fertile belt along the coast, through the string of oases which run through the desert down to Timbuctoo, with the vast cultivable and inhabited region which lies behind the Gold Coast. The success of the Suez Canal, which was essentially a French enterprise, has kindled the imagination of French capitalists to a degree which has not hitherto been seen since the Revolution, and the task of "developing Africa" is now preached and depicted, even in sober French economical journals, as a task worthy of French enterprise, in language with which the world has hitherto only been familiar in the columns of American newspapers puffing the bonds of "transcontinental railroads." To make African annexation, however, thoroughly popular in France, it is not enough that it promises great commercial profits and a large field for colonization. There must be a little work for soldiers to do, so as to keep alive the national pride in the army as a great institution, and, above all, there must be opposition or expressed disapproval on the part of some foreign power. In the case of Tunis both these little stimulants are supplied. The young soldiers of the new army have, and will have, an opportunity of showing that the martial qualities of the French character have not declined. The remonstrances of England and Italy supply the sensation of getting something that other people would like to have, which, though it is doubtless a survival of barbarism, is still to a very large degree one of the great rewards of successful effort in the social as well as in the political arena.

FOREST FIRES.

AS is not unusual at this season of the year, destructive forest fires are reported in various portions of the New England and the North Atlantic States. Forest fires are not confined to these States, but prevail at different seasons of the year, either as the result of accident or design, wherever, with few exceptions, on this continent there are forests to burn. The value of the property thus destroyed in the United States every year is not even approximately known, and few persons probably have ever fairly considered the immense loss the community experiences from this curse. The great Wisconsin fire of 1872, which swept along the shores of Green Bay for more than thirty miles, destroyed merchantable pine which, were it standing to-day, would be worth probably more than twenty-five millions of dollars. A few years earlier a great fire raged for three months in the magnificent forests which clothe the coast range of southern Oregon, the most beautiful coniferous forest of the continent. The value of the property destroyed in this fire cannot be estimated. The volumes of smoke which rolled up from it obscured the light of the sun, and for weeks day and night could not be distinguished; labor was abandoned, and the vessels which ply along the coast were forced to stand far out to sea. Pine and fir were destroyed in immense quantities, and twelve thousand million feet of "Port Orford cedar" (the valuable wood of a peculiar cypress of that region) were, it is said, consumed. Great fires sweep every year through the fir forests of Puget Sound, forests which have not anywhere their equal in productive capacity. They are common along the Cascade Mountains of Oregon and the California Sierras. The scanty and stunted forests which nestle on the upper slopes of the mountain ranges of the Great Basin and of Arizona, and which, once destroyed, can never be replaced, are every year the prey to extensive fires. Great tracts of the pine forests of the northern Rocky Mountain region, extending east to the Yellowstone, and along the intervening mountain ranges to the Black Hills of Dakota, are already consumed. On a clear day in summer the smoke of countless forest fires may be seen from any of the high peaks of Colorado. The pine belt of the Southern Atlantic and the Gulf coasts is entirely burned over every year in order that the pasturage which these open forests free of undergrowth afford may be improved. Forest fires are happily of rarer occurrence in the Southern Alleghany region and on the Cumberland plateau, and this is probably true of the lower Mississippi Valley, where the prevalence of non-resinous trees and a more equally distributed rainfall check the spread of fire.

This waste of valuable material is not, however, the greatest loss caused by forest fires, and yet it is believed that more of our trees are destroyed every year by this cause than by all others combined. The greatest injury these fires inflict is this: The burning of the surface soil so changes its character that the original species do not often reappear after a forest has been burned, until its lost fertility has been restored by the slow growth and decay of generations of less valuable plants. When a northern pine forest is destroyed by fire it is succeeded first by stunted brambles, then dwarf huckleberries appear, and these in turn are succeeded by poplars and bird-cherries, or perhaps by scrub oaks; and many years must elapse before the soil is in a

condition again to produce pines. As is well known, the pine belt of our Southern coast is largely composed of a species of peculiar value, the long-leaved pine. When from any cause a portion of the ground occupied by this tree has escaped the general yearly burning this species comes up again; but where the ground has been burned over during a number of years, and then protected from fire, another species appears whose chief value is found in its ability to thrive on, and possibly restore to fertility, poor and exhausted soil. Fortunately the fir of the northwest coast, thanks to a soil of great fertility and an excessive rainfall, still reproduces itself after fire; and here we shall be forced to look for a partial lumber supply when the southern pine shall have given place to its less valuable congener, and the white-pine forests, which a few years ago stretched in an almost unbroken line along our northern boundary from the Atlantic to beyond the Mississippi, have been replaced by poplar brakes and berry patches. This prospective damage caused by forest fires has not been generally considered in treating this subject, and the impossibility of rightly estimating its extent and nature presents a serious difficulty to the proper understanding of this important economic question. Then to the account of forest fires, too, in addition to present destruction of material and of priceless plant-food, must be charged, in part at least, the presence, along the western edge of the Atlantic forests, of those great green bays which we call prairies, and which, whatever their origin, certainly owe much of their extension and continuance to the yearly burnings by which our nomadic predecessors sought to improve their hunting grounds.

Conditions peculiarly favorable to the spread of forest fires on this continent are easily recognized. West of the rooth meridian the rain of the year falls in the winter months, and the long hot summers so parch the soil that a fire once started among the resinous trees of which the forests in that part of the country are composed has full sway. In the East, although the rainfall is more evenly distributed, there are almost every year several months of summer drought, and too often a shorter period of scanty rainfall in the early spring, during which fires are common and most destructive. All the forest regions of the country, east and west, are thinly settled, and by a people whose indifference to the value of forests comes to them by inheritance from the time when the destruction of the trees which hindered the cultivation of the soil was the gravest agricultural problem their ancestors had to encounter. As has been seen, forest fires are in some parts of the country intentionally set by stock-men to improve pasturage. They are often set by hunters, either accidentally or intentionally, to facilitate the pursuit of game; very often they owe their origin to the carelessness of the mining prospectors who every year swarm over the forest-clad mountains of the West. The Indians set many fires, and generally, it is believed, intentionally, either to improve their hunting or to avenge themselves on white settlers. Ten years ago more than a hundred and fifty square miles of pine forest in the Middle Park of Colorado were burned by the Utes as a war measure of their last memorable struggle. Loggers carelessly set many fires in the woods; and much property is destroyed by fires first started in the routine of rude agricultural operations getting beyond control and reaching the forest. Many fires are set every year intentionally by wood-choppers, who thus seek to secure immediate employment in cutting up the partially burned trees, or by charcoal-burners anxious to secure material at a price reduced by excessive supply. Locomotives set every year thousands of forest fires, and it is desirable, and probably perfectly practicable, to compel all railroads to adopt some method for preventing the escape of sparks by which the damage is done.

Almost every State has sought to check forest fires by imposing fines or imprisonment on persons convicted of starting them. Such laws, however, cannot be enforced in a community indifferent and ignorant of what such fires mean. Forest fires will continue and probably increase for some time to come, in spite of the warnings of a few specialists who study the wants of the future as well as of the present development of the country. In time the remedy for this evil will be found, but it will be found too late. When our forests shall have largely disappeared (we are speaking of forests of economic value in distinction from land overgrown with comparatively worthless species), and the prices of all that the forests yield shall have immensely increased, then, after it is too late, the person who sets a forest fire accidentally or wilfully must expect to be regarded and treated very much as a horse-thief is now on the frontier. When that time shall have arrived it will be easy to prevent forest fires by legislation. At present it is useless to do more than call attention to the fact that such fires cost the country every year millions, perhaps hundreds of millions, of its stored-up wealth, and that if we are to save any part of our forests it can only be done through aroused public sentiment in their favor and not by laws which are neither respected nor obeyed.

THE HARVARD "CEDIPUS."

THE PERFORMANCE.

IN the ten days that have elapsed since the first performance of the "Edipus Tyrannus" at Harvard the daily newspapers have been so full of the Greek play that the more sober weekly chronicler finds little new to record.

The whole history of Greek tragic art has been passed in review with an erudition that often lacked nothing except orthography, and the universal reporter has mastered the whole vocabulary of costume from the buskin of Æschylus down to the sandal of the Harvard solo-singer. In these circumstances all preliminary characteristic may be dispensed with, and the reader of the *Nation* may be ushered without further delay into the Sanders Theatre.

On the Saturday preceding the first performance there had been a full-dress rehearsal, which gave the actors, managers, and friends of the Harvard play the confidence so essential to success. The performance was, indeed, a triumph, and that triumph was as typically Greek as anything else, for it was the result of the most elaborate attention to details. No point had been neglected. Even the translation of the American "horse-cars" into Attic had been the subject of many grave conferences, and if there were a few prickles in the laurel crown, a few misprints in the programme, it is un-Greek to be too happy. There was no hitch in the arrangements, no jar in the mechanism, which worked as steadily and infallibly as the tragic springs of the drama itself. One might have thought that even the audience had rehearsed, so perfect was it in all its parts, so quietly did the spectators slip into their seats, so close their attention, so just their applause, so fit the manner of their withdrawal, as if under the spell of religious art. It was not merely an audience of undergraduates and their friends. Scholars and authors from all parts of the country were present, and, of the predetermined critics of the Harvard "Œdipus"—chiefly the men whose work in life had been the technical study of the language of the play—not a few were listening and looking intently. Such men, as a rule, are unforgiving, mainly, as many think, because they are after all mere schoolmasters, who wield a pen as they might wield a ferule—if they dared to do so in these humanitarian days. But something should be granted to an unfortunate guild; unfortunate in many things, yet fortunate in this—that in the sphere of art to which the "Œdipus" belongs the infinitely little is the infinitely great. It is easy enough to get up the story of "Œdipus," the characteristics of Sophocles, the philosophy of the drama, but there are points in which even pedants have their rights, though dramatic critics might refuse to hear what they should have to say of Booth and Irving, of Salvini and Sarah Bernhardt.

The Sanders Theatre is admirably adapted to an academic performance of the scope of the Harvard "Œdipus." It is large enough to admit of brilliant effects, of varied groupings. It is small enough to give each spectator the delightful consciousness of being a privileged personage, so that even a stranger can assume the genius of the place, and feel what it must be to have a covenant right to the Harvard beatitudes. The ample stage had been reduced to the narrow ledge which is all that the antique play requires for its action. Two temple-fronts in all the glory of polychromatic art rested on a heavy wall, pierced by three openings—to modern eyes a case-mate rather than a palace. There was no elaborate attempt to reproduce all the details of the Attic stage, and in this, as in much else, the managers showed a wise moderation. On the antique stage itself so much was mere indication that a little indication more or less did not here disturb the effect. The orchestra allowed scanty space for elaborate evolutions, and from what I had seen of the marchings and countermarchings of other reproductions of Greek plays, I did not regret the limitation unreservedly.

After a brief overture, or rather prelude, in which even an unmusical listener might have recognized some prophecy of the action, the suppliants entered and the attendants with visible effort opened the heavy paper doors and the protagonist appeared. Mr. Riddle has made the piece a success. He is a professional actor, a professional teacher of elocution, and is not to be classed with the young amateurs who studied under his guidance, and so I shall not hesitate to write with a frankness which would otherwise be a little out of place. The play was not Greek because the language was Greek, and so Greek freedom of speech, Greek *παρρησία*, must also be tempered to suit the modern mind. My first thought on seeing Mr. Riddle was, This is a youthful *Œdipus*, and I began to compute. At once we miss the mask and the cothurnus. It would never have occurred to an Athenian spectator to ask the age of *Œdipus*, or the age of *Jocasta*, and yet, I venture to say, some such problem was vividly present to the minds of many of the Harvard audience. I remembered that *Œdipus* himself calls his sons men, and this would bring the hero to the full maturity of life. Many years had passed since the death of *Laius*. The king cannot be a boy, and Mr. Riddle looked much younger than his part, younger even than his years. The illusion of heroic size was also lacking. There is a traditional ideal of *Œdipus* that cannot be slighted, for the lines of the figure are given by the poet himself. He is like his father *Laius*, and we demand for him a tall form and a growth of close, curling hair that bites into the skull with the vigor of strong animal life. Modern heroes, outside of muscular novels, do not need these advantages. For them they are but accessories; to the antique they are indispensable. The duty of the modern actor is to make us forget this, and, remembering Garrick, the lights of Mr. Riddle's profession might laugh at the sweet simplicity of a mere physical requirement. Momentum makes up for weight, and it must

be granted that as Mr. Riddle warmed to his work he overcame in a measure the disadvantages of short stature, slight figure, and un-Greek face, and finally carried the audience with him by sheer force. But the first impression was unfavorable. There was a languor in his manner, a loose-jointedness, which did not sort with the virile character of the hero. This is not the prince reared in the house of *Polybus*, the man who slew *Laius* and his suite—all of them, as he fancied—the hero that faced the peril of the Sphinx's riddle and did not lose his wit in the encounter with death. I am rather reminded, I hardly know why, of *Richard II.* At any rate, Mr. Riddle's *Œdipus* is nearer *Richard II.* than it is to the antique *Œdipus*; but luckily we did not need the antique *Œdipus*.

Every old town in Germany has its "tokens," every author his secrets. The task which a great London editor used to set his beginners was the description of a dead-wall. The touchstone, the despair of the translator of Sophocles is the rapid interchange of the dialogue. The severest test of the actor of Sophocles is the rendering of such passages as the altercation between *Œdipus* and *Teiresias*, the quarrel between *Œdipus* and *Creon*. Sophocles, the most subtle in his artistic finish, handles a sharper rasp than any other tragic poet. Nothing can save the scenes to which I have alluded from vulgarity—or rather from what the Greeks call *τὸ φορτικόν*—except a tide of great passion in a great nature. This is a recurrent trouble. The pungent tartness of *Electra* is almost shrewishness; *Philoctetes* is almost a grumbling valetudinarian; and it requires a more subtle art than Mr. Riddle's to keep the mere wrangle of the upstart out of the rôle of *Œdipus*. *Œdipus* must be a prince from the crown of his bruised head to the sole of his pierced foot, and this Mr. Riddle was at no time from his languishing entrance to his half-fainting exit. To cite examples of false conception would take up too much space, besides opening questions of varying interpretation. One or two instances among many must suffice. *Jocasta*, whose part, like that of all Sophocles' heroines, demands the intensest study, has a truly feminine access of impiety, like so many of her modern sisters, who are habitually devotional and yet contradict any religious authority at a moment's notice, only to yield again when it suits them. With a thoroughly womanlike "neither here nor there," *Jocasta* scouts all prophecy; she would not waste a glance on such matters henceforth. *Œdipus* has heard her bit of blasphemy with the outward ear, and indeed has caught the drift of her speech, but it has made no impression on his mind; he has taken no comfort, and his *καλῶς νομίζεις* is a mere piece of marital politeness, a "doubtless you are right"; and it is a capital error to make him reply in the tone of one who has pondered her speech carefully, with the air of an Addisonian *Œdipus*, as who should say:

"It must be so. My wife, thou reasonest well."

Again, when the Harvard *Jocasta* kneels at the feet of *Œdipus* and entreats him to seek no further, closing her appeal with those heart-sickening words *ἀλλ' ἵς νοσοῦσ' ἐγώ*, the Harvard *Œdipus* lays his hand in consolation on his queen, and the bitter "Be of good courage" is construed as a balm.

But I turn with pleasure to more grateful themes. Mr. Riddle's declamation as declamation was often admirable, and in the celebrated passage in which the hero describes the death of *Laius* the audience was conquered, and from that point held captive to the end, so that the faults of detail were lost sight of in the total effect. His voice is carefully trained, as might be supposed, and his pronunciation beautiful. A college-bred man, I believe, Mr. Riddle is not a professed Grecian, and this study of Greek pronunciation, as accepted to-day by advanced scholars, must have been made under most excellent guidance. The Anglo-Saxon mouth finds the short Italian *a* a difficult sound. There were lapses in the final letters at times, and some of the diphthongs were too labored, but it must have been a rare pleasure to many in the audience to hear Greek so well rendered. This alone would have redeemed everything—to the schoolmaster element.

So much turned on Mr. Riddle's performance of *Œdipus* that I have dwelt longest on his part—too long, perhaps, to leave myself room to explain why the play was a success apart from Mr. Riddle, or to give the meed of praise due to the other actors. *Teiresias* was well done. Indeed, the effectiveness of young men in the representation of old parts is noteworthy, and is clearly traceable to the necessity which they feel of getting out of themselves. So the Corinthian messenger, and especially the servant of *Laius*, came fully up to the requirements of the piece. The second messenger would seem to an outsider to have had distinctly in view an imitation of Mr. Riddle's achievement in the narrative of the death of *Laius*. The contrast, both in manner and pronunciation, was only too much to the advantage of the model. *Creon's* part is ungrateful. A chapter might be written on the character of *Creon* and the handling of it in the Attic drama. For my own part, I cannot understand why some critics find it difficult to mediate between the *Creon* of the "Œdipus Tyrannus," on the one hand, and the *Creon* of the "Œdipus Coloneus" and the "Antigone," on the other. *Creon* is a narrow, conventional nature throughout. His nobility in the "Œdipus Tyrannus" is the nobility of a formalist. One imagines that he must have studied some Theban Theognis or other mythic

moralist. The tragedy in his subsequent history is the conflict of the churchwarden nature with the larger things of fate. It is a tragedy which leaves its hero without respect. The Harvard rendering of *Creon* was designedly commonplace. Remains *Jocasta*. I have purposely reserved that part to the end. *Jocasta* was clearly next to the protagonist in the favor of the audience, and the applause which followed her final words was the most enthusiastic and spontaneous of the evening. The actor was marvellously feminine in appearance, and imagination fails me when I try to represent to myself how he could have acquired all that suppleness and "lissomeness." The most audacious metaphor of the play suggests a large frame, a *Magna Mater*, a figure to which might have been forgiven the deep voice that issued from the slender form of our *Jocasta*. At first the girliness of *Jocasta's* appearance shocked me; but if the way of a man with a maid is wonderful, the ways of a wife with a husband, say, eighteen years her junior, are too hard for most of us. Sophocles, as is well known, was learned in love beyond the common range, and if we knew more of his own life, we might understand *Jocasta* better. Imperious, coaxing, defiant, tremulous, gracious, *Jocasta* has all the resources of queenly, wifely, womanly experience; and when I said to some of my friends that our *Jocasta* was too much a girl for that, a number of modern Antigones and Andromaches rejoined that wives who were older than their lords were always younger than their lords. And such oracles are infallible. *Jocasta* is no more within my province than is the music.

And yet I earnestly desire to say something about the music from the Hellenist point of view. The composer's choice lay between a severe melody with little instrumentation and a more modern treatment which should be in consonance with the necessary change of conditions. For my part I had resigned myself to an utter extinction of the original rhythms, as they are understood by scholars nowadays; and as these rhythms seem to most of us to have a definite symbolism, it was with a sigh that I renounced all hope of recognizing the familiar movements with which I had so long associated the voice of prayer, the wail of anguish, the whirl of doubt, plangent musing, tremulous joy. But all these reflexes and prophecies of the development of the action came out with full distinctness in Mr. Paine's music, and only gave in larger lines and brighter colors the effects which the unaided voice of the teacher could never have so much as sketched. As I have said, there was no choral evolution, and the evident weariness of the heroic fifteen was the only drawback to the interest of the audience. The voice of the coryphæus, so musical in song, was thin and mechanical in speech, and the action of the stage did not transmit itself through the persons of the chorus to the audience, according to the theory. But the music gave the unity which it so often destroys.

It was my good fortune last summer to witness the performance of the "Agamemnon" of Æschylus in the hall of Balliol College, and it is natural that on this occasion my thoughts should go back to that scene, of which I endeavored at the time to give some slight account to the readers of the *Nation*. A comparison of the two performances is evidently unfair. The "Agamemnon" and the "Œdipus" belong to different stages of art. The articulation of the "Œdipus" is complete in itself. The "Agamemnon" is one of a trilogy, and the choral masses demand a different disposition. It would have been impossible to handle them as Mr. Paine handles the choruses of the "Œdipus" without wearying the audience and dulling the edge of the action. Parts of them were sung, parts declaimed, now in unison, now by single *choreutai*, and a certain dramatic effect was thus attained, and a far closer unity of actors and chorus than was possible in the Harvard rendering of the "Œdipus." The antique character was more seriously compromised, but the vitality was more tense. Nor would it be fair to compare the external conditions. The Oxford men had made no long and elaborate preparation. The stage appliances were simple in the extreme. Not half as many shillings were spent at Oxford as dollars at Harvard. A superb young undergraduate was busy stencilling a part of the palace roof of the Atreidæ a couple of hours before the performance began. The costumes were not elaborate; there was no "book of the opera," no distinct effort to be scholarly or archaeological; and yet it was a marked success—a success that repeated itself at Harrow, at Eton, in London. It is a beautiful thing to remember with all its youthful dash and zest. Carefully planned, thoroughly studied, wrought out with minute attention to such details as fell within the limits, our Harvard "Œdipus" was by far the more finished piece of work, and the memory of it a more brilliant picture. The Old World and the New seem to have changed parts, but we must not forget that had there been no Oxford "Agamemnon" there would have been no Harvard "Œdipus." It is to be counted among the happinesses of a lover of Greek to have witnessed both.

B. L. G.

THE MUSIC.

Signal as was the artistic success of the performance in every respect, the most original and striking feature of it all was the noble music. It is the feature which will no doubt be interesting to future generations as one of the landmarks in the history of musical art. In this great work Mr. Paine has most completely attained the end of making the music enhance the emotions

naturally awakened in the development of the tragedy, until, in spite of all the anachronisms of detail, in spite of all the mythical unreality of the whole situation to the modern mind, the awful grandeur of the old Greek conception is impressed upon us as intensely as it could have been felt by the devoutest believer in Apollo and in the Eumenides. The acting, by itself, great as were its merits, could hardly have achieved this. Nor could the music have achieved such a result had it been conceived in a spirit of narrow antiquarianism. To reproduce the forms of ancient Greek music was no part of Mr. Paine's purpose. We do not really know what the old Greek music was, but even if we did it may be safely assumed that any imitation of it would produce but a very slight emotional effect upon the modern mind. So far from seeking to copy the antique, the true method of dealing with the problem is to apply the highest resources of modern musical expression to the illustration of the ancient dramatic idea; and this is what Mr. Paine has done. Of all his works this is perhaps the most distinctly modern in treatment, unless it be his second symphony.

The music is written for male chorus with orchestra. The acting chorus, of fifteen voices, stands about the *thymele* before the stage, while the supplementary chorus, of sixty voices, sits arranged in a semi-circle with the orchestra of thirty-five players. For the purely musical effect both chorus and orchestra might well be much larger. With an orchestra of fifty the effect of the strings would, of course, be enhanced, but the limited space in the theatre would hardly allow of this.

Among the themes of the six choruses the most striking contrast is between the second theme of the second chorus and the theme of the sixth chorus. The former, *adagio* in G major, sings the trust of the people in *Œdipus*, and is worked up in one of the most exquisite cantabile passages that ever gladdened the heart of man. The latter, *moderato* in C minor, follows the terrible cry with which *Œdipus* rushes from the scene on discovering the horrible situation into which resistless fate has led him, and all the shuddering horror of the moment is expressed in this theme, in the syncopated accompaniment, and in the wonderful movement of the basses, in which the relentless obstinacy of fate itself seems to be well typified. These two strongly-contrasted themes, worked up with various elaboration, form the chief burden of the overture, which thus epitomizes the fundamental conception of the tragedy.

While the second and sixth choruses thus represent the opposite extremes of feeling between which the development of the drama is carried on, the first and fourth give noble expression to the feelings of religious awe with which the harrowing themes of the Greek tragedy were approached by the ancients. The Greek tragic drama originated in a religious service, and in the great days of Æschylus and Sophocles it had by no means lost the evident marks of its origin. These sublime "plays"—which some modern fools, I observe, are swift to stigmatize as "immoral"—were witnessed by the Athenian spectators not, indeed, with such feelings as those with which devout worshippers take part in a church-service, but, no doubt, with feelings as earnest and solemn as those with which we listen to a grand oratorio. This mood is especially apparent in Mr. Paine's fourth chorus, which, for elevation of religious sentiment, is on a level with the great choruses in "St. Peter." Historically, too, such a chorus is no doubt essentially true, giving voice to the really religious element in paganism far more profoundly than Mendelssohn's "O be gracious, ye immortals," though that chorus is true enough when considered, so to speak, with its context.

In marked contrast with these devotional and supplicating strains comes the third chorus, which breaks in upon the quarrel between *Œdipus* and *Creon*. Here the alternation of dialogue and chorus, sustained by rich and varied orchestration, is extremely lively and dramatic. In the fifth chorus comes one of the brightest moments by which the horror of the tragedy is relieved, when the people, mistaking the import of the revelations just made—which only *Jocasta* comprehends—jump to the conclusion that *Œdipus* is of celestial origin. The beautiful melody here, given to a tenor voice, accompanied by the rest of the chorus, was finely rendered by Mr. George L. Osgood.

But dry description of this sort can convey to the reader but a scanty idea of the manifold excellence of the musical treatment of this interesting subject. The music is, from its intrinsic beauty, well fitted to be produced in concerts, apart from the full text of the great drama, which it has invested with a fresh interest for all to whom modern music is the highest and noblest of all the modes of expression that the human mind has learned to employ. To reproduce the drama, as it has been done now at Harvard, will always be a difficult task. To perform the music, from season to season, is a comparatively easy matter; and the hearing of these choruses will go far toward extending the popular reputation of Mr. Paine.

J. F.

THE TORY LEADERSHIP.

LONDON, May 6.

THE lamentations around Lord Beaconsfield's bier had not died away before people began to dispute about the great inheritance which he has left—the leadership of the Conservative party, carrying with it the reversion

of the Premiership whenever fortune shall snatch power out of the grasp of the Liberals. With us in England the headship of one of the two great political parties usually passes unquestioned from one man to some other whose previous office has clearly designated him as the rightful successor. Lord Derby took it because he was, after the split between Peel and the bulk of the Tory party, indisputably the best speaker and most conspicuous figure in the Tory ranks. Mr. Disraeli took it because he had led the party in the House of Commons for many years, and was, therefore, the obviously right person for the Queen to make Prime Minister when Lord Derby's ill-health compelled him to retire. Mr. Gladstone's succession to Lord Russell was equally simple and natural. But now it is far from clear who ought to take Lord Beaconsfield's post; nor does any regularly-settled mode, like that of your national conventions, exist for deciding between the candidates. The Liberals were in a similar difficulty six years ago when Mr. Gladstone resigned the leadership, and they then held a meeting of Liberal members of the House of Commons and chose Lord Hartington. But this was a less serious difficulty, for Lord Granville was to some extent recognized as leader of the whole party, so that the selection had reference to the House of Commons only, while in the present case the Conservatives have got to choose a supreme chief to direct their entire policy in both Houses and the country.

The candidates whose claims are actively discussed are four in number. The first in rank is the Duke of Richmond. He is a dull, solid man, of what we call in England the farmer type; slow in his ideas, averse to novelties, with little power of expression or of consecutive argument, yet with some of the qualities useful in any kind of practical life—the qualities of composure, industry, a liking for business, a willingness to hear reason, a character for honesty and good faith. If he would never devise a brilliant stroke of strategy, neither would he be likely to get his party into a mess by any outrageous blunder. His policy would give fair play to those natural forces which always make for Conservatism, but would not add to them by any schemes that could be called original or constructive. In fact, to put it shortly, he would be a negative sort of leader, who, though he could not do much good to his party, would probably do it no harm. The weak point about him is that he would enjoy very little of that kind of authority among his colleagues which flows from intellectual strength, and that he is not known at all in the country generally. His name could not be made a rallying cry at Tory meetings. His somewhat tame and ordinary countenance would excite no interest when hung in a gilt frame on the walls of a Conservative club-room. In these respects the contrast between him and Lord Beaconsfield, who, whatever else may be said of him, was certainly a most striking individuality, would be so marked that it is not wonderful the Conservatives should hesitate before placing so commonplace a man at the helm of their ship.

Equal in rank to the Duke of Richmond, but singularly unlike him in character, is the Marquis of Salisbury, whom the more extreme and noisy section of the Tory party are putting forward. Three years ago he would have been generally accepted as the rightful heir to the vacant throne. He had a successful career in the House of Commons. He is a great noble, with vast wealth and influence. He has been all his life a very active politician, known to everybody in the country, and versed in all the minor arts of party warfare. No member of the Upper House has done so much stumping or does it with so much keenness and force. He is an incisive speaker, effective by the sarcastic bitterness with which he puts his points, and animated by a double measure of genuine party spirit. He is possessed by all the orthodox Tory beliefs and aversions—hatred of the Dissenters, fear of the Radicals, contempt for a peace policy, a sincere attachment to the hereditary aristocracy and the landed interest. His personal probity stands high, and those who know him best declare that the acridity which marks his speeches is quite absent from his private conversation. And there is a sort of dash and abandon about his tactics which used to fascinate people, and make them think him a man of eminent courage and decision. But he has two faults—fatal faults—the one discernible through all his career, the other first revealed by his conduct as foreign minister. He is not wise, and he is not straightforward. Hardly any leading man has committed so many blunders of judgment, said so many needlessly intemperate things, given so little evidence of possessing that cool foresight which is so necessary in the head of a great party. His vigor is not really the persistent vigor of a statesman; it is the irresponsible vehemence of a literary man, who gets carried away by his desire to produce a temporary effect. The defect in candor, one does not wish to say in truthfulness, is a still graver one. He has repeatedly used language which misled, and was clearly intended to mislead, his adversaries, and through them the public. Much must be forgiven to a minister who is pressed by inconvenient questions. But it is above all things necessary that confidence in the declarations of responsible ministers should be maintained; and he is thought, even among his own allies, to have crossed the line which separates the mere parrying of a disagreeable querist from the giving currency to statements which conceal the facts and deceive the country. This imputation has seriously affected his position, weakening the confidence which would otherwise have been felt in him. It goes even further than his want of

the higher kind of political wisdom to make the sager heads among the Conservatives shy of accepting him. They feel that as they are likely to have for some time to come to stand on the defensive—indeed, to conduct a retreat in the face of the enemy—they need a cool and cautious chief, who will select his ground carefully before he gives battle, and whose own reputation must be such as to command the confidence of the whole country in his good faith as well as his patriotism. But Lord Salisbury would be apt to lay himself open to attacks on his personal conduct which would, unfortunately, affect the party also.

Next in dignity and position, but far superior in intelligence, comes Lord Cairns. He is a lawyer from the North of Ireland, a middle-class man, who has pushed himself to the front by abilities of the highest legal order; a singularly clear and powerful, albeit somewhat dry, speaker, with a capacity unrivalled among his former compeers at the bar for stating a case with the utmost cogency of argument. In the House of Commons he was a very effective debater, and all his subsequent performances in the House of Lords, both while he filled the great place of Lord Chancellor and while he sat in Opposition, have still further raised his oratorical reputation. Nor does that reputation rest merely on intellectual gifts. He is a man of great strength and decision of character, knowing exactly what he believes and means to do, able to form a prompt resolution and carry it out with vigor. His presence is imposing, his manner dignified, his private character irreproachable. He is indeed a trifle too conspicuously, though no doubt quite sincerely, religious; opens his house for prayer-meetings, and occasionally in the country holds forth from the pulpit or the reading-desk. Himself self-reliant, he would inspire confidence in his followers. If report speaks truly, he was the only one of the late Conservative Ministry on whom Lord Beaconsfield was accustomed to lean, and whose advice he sought at critical moments. Since the days of Lord Lyndhurst no lawyer has appeared so well qualified for political strife, or has obtained so conspicuous a success in it. Still, after all, he is a lawyer and a middle-class man. The Conservative country gentlemen cannot forget a fact of which the style of his oratory so constantly reminds them. It took them many years to overcome their repugnance to Mr. Disraeli; and Mr. Disraeli had a power of acquiring influence over persons which Lord Cairns, whose nature and manners are cold and ungenial, does not possess. Few equally eminent men seem to have made so few personal friends. They feel that somehow he is not one of them; that he is, after all, only a consummate advocate, who will hold their brief and loyally do his best for his clients, but who doesn't care about the party traditions and share the party prejudices in their own sense. Herein they probably do him some injustice, for he is in many respects a genuine Conservative, being by birth an Irish Orangeman, with most of the passions and many of the narrow views of that faction. But it cannot be denied that he, like the Duke of Richmond, wants weight in the country. His public appearances have of late years been confined to the House of Lords, a cold though stately theatre, and one which the nation little regards. No popular interest surrounds him, and it is doubtful whether his gifts, great and admirable as they are, could avail him.

There remains Sir Stafford Northcote, who has led the Tory party in the House of Commons since Lord Beaconsfield quitted that chamber. His abilities are inferior to those of Lord Cairns, but superior to those of the two other rivals. He is an able and versatile man, with a great capacity for business, quick in mastering a subject, lucid in explaining, with a remarkable power of easy and fluent though certainly unimpressive speech. Without ever rising to a great height, he never sinks below a respectable level. With an admirable temper and manners which make him generally popular he combines a good deal of tactical craft, but a craft which is always quite within the rules of the game, never unworthy of an honorable man. He is, in spite of a mild and gentle exterior, a dangerous person to be opposed to, for he is very watchful and very quick. The complaint which his party make against him is that he wants energy and pugnacity, that he is too reasonable, too conciliatory—perhaps, indeed, too little of a genuine Tory. He was once, in the beginning of his political career, Mr. Gladstone's private secretary, and he seems to have retained traces of the Peelite influence in his enlarged views of all commercial and financial questions, his disposition to look out for fair compromises, his superiority to class prejudices. Thus his trumpet is thought to give on many questions an uncertain sound. The noisy men of the party do not care to rally to him; do not feel as if his voice roused their courage or inspired them with hopes of victory. His type of Conservatism, in short, is not the type to which Lord Beaconsfield had accustomed its followers, and seems pale and colorless beside the brilliant pictures which they had learnt to admire.

The question between these four is not yet settled, and perhaps may not be for some little time to come. It is understood that the leadership in the Upper House will in the meantime return to the Duke of Richmond, who held it a while before Lord Beaconsfield mounted thither, while that of the Commons, of course, continues with Sir Stafford Northcote, the general headship of the party remaining in abeyance. Meanwhile, the Liberals enjoy the hesitation of their adversaries, and amuse themselves by tendering advice. Its

burden commonly is, "Whatever you do, don't choose Lord Salisbury." But this counsel only perplexes those it is addressed to; for while some say, "*Fas est et ab hoste doceri*," others insist that the Liberal dislike to Lord Salisbury is the most substantial testimony to his merits. The Liberal papers reply by protesting that, so far as their own interests are concerned, they desire nothing so much as to see Lord Salisbury chosen, because he would be sure to upset the Conservative coach, but that they care more for the good of the country than for party interests. Meanwhile, there is a real call for a vigorous and commanding mind to give the Conservatives a consistent policy on the Irish Land Bill, which has now been debated for a fortnight. Everybody, now that Lord Beaconsfield has departed, extols his sagacity, and declares that he would have known how to play the game so as at once to checkmate the Government, and yet not rouse popular feeling against the House of Lords. Whoever is now selected to succeed him will have to bear for some time a disagreeable comparison with him, for the greatest difficulty in leading a party in a parliamentary country is to make your authority acknowledged and obeyed; and none of the four aspirants can for years to come approach Lord Beaconsfield in this respect. The contrast between him and them sets his peculiar gifts in the strongest light, and goes some way to justify the extravagant eulogies which his memory has been receiving. These eulogies, and the manifestations of the feeling of the Court, have provoked a certain reaction among the opposite party—a reaction which finds expression in the opposition threatened to the vote for giving him a monument at the public expense in Westminster Abbey. Those who hold that a public monument implies public approval of his career as a whole, naturally urge that it is absurd for a party which a year ago was condemning his personal behavior as well as his policy in fierce terms, now, merely because he is gone from among us, to turn round and appear to forgive everything. The more general view, however, seems to be that Westminster Abbey is to be regarded merely as a place where famous men who have played a great part, be it a good part or a bad one, in the history of the country are to be commemorated in stone. Otherwise, it is argued, you will make every death of an eminent statesman the occasion for an unseemly party wrangle. And as this vote is moved by Mr. Gladstone, than whom no one thought worse of Lord Beaconsfield's public conduct, posterity can hardly misinterpret it. The matter will doubtless have been settled before these lines can reach you. Y.

MME. DE MAINTENON AND MARSHAL VILLARS.

PARIS, April 28, 1881.

THE correspondence of Madame de Maintenon and of Marshal Villars is still inedited; we know only that the famous Marshal was among the most assiduous correspondents of the person who may be said to be as a letter-writer almost a rival of Madame de Sévigné. Nothing, of course, will be found in the correspondence of Madame de Maintenon which can equal the charm, the wit, the *naturel* of the marquise. The letters of Madame de Maintenon belong to history more than to literature proper; but they are written in the most admirable French, in that sober, firm, and now inimitable French of the *grand siècle*. The first collection of her letters was published by La Beaumelle in two very small volumes, which bear the title, 'Lettres de Madame de Maintenon, à Nancy, chez Dailleau, 1752.' These two volumes are now found only with difficulty. La Beaumelle published afterwards a new collection of letters under his name—'Lettres de Madame de Maintenon, publiées par La Beaumelle, Glasgow (Paris), 1756'; seven volumes. The same La Beaumelle had published a year before, in 1755, at Amsterdam, fifteen volumes of 'Mémoires pour servir à l'histoire de Madame de Maintenon et à celle du siècle passé.'

It is very much to be regretted that in his second publication La Beaumelle very often made interpolations and changes; the true Madame de Maintenon is more apparent in the two little volumes which I have mentioned first. It is hardly possible that La Beaumelle could have found this, for instance, which is in a letter addressed by Madame de Maintenon to her niece, Madame de Caylus (who published most interesting memoirs):

"My dear niece, believe in my tenderness and my experience; I have tasted everything, and I see that we must return to the sentiment of Solomon—'All is vexation of spirit.' I can speak out to nobody; but if I am silent even with you on the nature of my pains, I can tell you with truth that there are no such pains in the world. I am often in despair; the King does not see it, and when he is gone my only pleasure is to remain alone and to weep between four curtains. I am not unaware of what is said of me by those who do not love me; they impute to me all that happens, as if I were mistress of events; they treat my devout habits as hypocrisy, they ridicule the severity of my morals and accuse me of not having always been so severe. It is hard to live with other people than those of your century; it is the misfortune of those who live too long" (1709).

Among those great enemies of Madame de Maintenon, to whom she alludes here, was Saint-Simon; and his hatred of her extended to all her

friends; Villars was among them, and Saint-Simon is unsparing of him. Happy circumstances have placed the correspondence of Madame de Maintenon and of Marshal Villars in the hands of a person who can make the best use of it, the Marquis de Vogüé, a member of the French Institute, who was for a few years ambassador of France at Constantinople and in Vienna, under the government of Marshal MacMahon. M. de Vogüé has given us already a glimpse of the great treasure which is in his hands. The correspondence which he possesses begins only in 1703; there is nothing left, unfortunately, of the letters which were exchanged before that time, when Villars was learning the art of war under Condé, Turenne, and Luxembourg, and when Madame de Maintenon was still Madame Scarron. Villars had been introduced to Madame Scarron by his father, whom Madame de Sévigné calls the "Bel Orondate." He had known her from his earliest youth, and it is perhaps natural that many years afterwards, when he wished to ask something from Louis XIV. which he did not like to ask directly, or when he wished to give him some information of a delicate nature, he wrote to Madame de Maintenon, whom he knew to be a safe person, of good judgment, and of consummate tact.

In the year 1703 Villars was discontented; he was greatly disgusted with the ally of France, the Elector of Bavaria, who opposed his plans. Villars intended to strike directly at Vienna, by the valley of the Danube (an idea which Napoleon afterwards put in execution); he thought that his great and then recent victory of Höchstädt gave him a right to impose his plans; but they were not adopted at Versailles, and Villars asked for permission to leave the army and to take some rest in France. He had hardly returned when the King gave him the difficult and painful task of pacifying the Cévennes. To do him justice, he used mercy as well as force, and he was successful where many others had failed. "The King," writes Villars to Madame de Maintenon, "did me the honor of saying, when he honored me with his last orders, that if I gained him two battles on the frontiers I could not render him a greater service than if I ended this revolt, from which his enemies expect great consequences. It is now ended, and the happiness of having ended it comes after the taking of Kell (*sic*), after the forcing of the Black Mountains, and a battle well gained in the heart of the Empire." Villars, you see, was not a little vain, and nobody understood better than himself the value of his services.

Villars gives an interesting account of the state of Languedoc at the time. In the letter which announces the end of his operations he says to Madame de Maintenon: "You know the rigor which was exercised here. The cruellest tortures, the hardest punishments employed two years ago were only irritating the evil. I know from M. de Basville himself [M. de Basville is the famous intendant who was the most active instrument in the persecution of the Protestants] that those who were led to death marched to their fate singing the praises of the Lord with such zeal and devotion that it was necessary to surround them with a number of drummers in order that their speeches should not make more impression than the example of their death. In the small engagements those who fell into the hands of the soldiers, and who were left at their mercy, thanked those who gave them death, and none was ever found to ask for mercy. Such a mania had taken possession of this revolted people. I have believed, with the wisest, that gentle means were more proper than violence to bring back such men; still I have kept my troops in perpetual motion in order to press warmly those who kept arms in their hands, extending mercy to those who implored the clemency of his Majesty." This system ended in an interview between Villars and the chief of the Camisards, Cavalier. "This chief offered to submit with all his troops, and promised the same in the name of the other chiefs, who regarded him as the first. It was so done, and Cavalier kept his word; he brought with him to Calvisson, which he had chosen for the purpose, eight hundred men, and went himself to speak to the other chiefs, who followed his example."

Villars enters into very minute details, and defends himself against those who accused him of too much leniency. He says that he considered it the best policy to manifest the greatest confidence in Cavalier. What effect could such letters have on the granddaughter of D'Aubigné? Was there nothing left in her of the old Huguenot spirit? We cannot answer these questions. Madame de Maintenon was a most devout Catholic, her letters express the most sincere admiration for a well-ordered, well-disciplined Church; she does not admit any revolt of conscience. She had adopted the ideal of her time, the ideal of Bossuet, of Bourdaloue, of Massillon. She was deeply religious, but she did not understand religion with freedom of conscience. This very word "freedom of conscience" alarms and frightens the seventeenth century. "I hope," says Villars, "the rebels will well recognize a truth which I have often affirmed to them—that the King will never admit the slightest liberty of conscience." This is said quite naturally, as a thing which goes of itself. France was very far in 1709 from Henri IV.; a century had passed since the son of Jeanne d'Albret had been murdered, and after a century nothing was left of his work. The war of the Cévennes was only an incident in the military career of Villars; on the field of his victories in Germany France

met with a disastrous defeat. Villars was very indignant, and Madame de Maintenon urged the King to send him back to the German frontier. He came to court, saw the King, and left at once for the army; he re-established the affairs of France, and made three campaigns in 1705, 1706, 1707. He wrote to Madame de Maintenon short letters after each important affair, as regularly as if she had been the minister of war. It is in this curious style, for instance, that Villars announces to Madame de Maintenon that he has taken the lines of Wissembourg: "Madame, I will never take the liberty of writing to you except when I have the honor of announcing to you a bit of agreeable news. This last is not very bloody, at least for the troops of the King, since we have only had a dragoon wounded. As for the enemy, they were taken by surprise; they thought only of flying, and we killed a good number, quite at our ease."

In 1707 Villars made a very brilliant campaign across the Rhine, and led his army as far as Würtemberg. He would have gone further than this province if the military events in Flanders and in Italy had not obliged him to retrace his steps in the direction of France and to defend the line of the Rhine. In 1708 he was sent to Italy. He could not do much there; he was very anxious to be sent to Flanders, and he developed his plans to Madame de Maintenon in long letters, which are a curious mixture of disinterestedness and egoism, of military precision and of gasconade. He understood his own character very well; he believed in his luck. In the postscript of one letter he says: "Allow me to tell you, madame, that it is sometimes useful to have your cards held by somebody who plays with luck, and especially when the confidence which fortune gives does not exclude an extreme precaution." It is very amusing to read the letters in which he gives Madame de Maintenon—that is to say, Louis XIV.—all the reasons why the conduct of the campaign should be left to him in the North: "I am perhaps the only general in Europe whose luck in war has not yet suffered any alteration." The answers of Madame de Maintenon are very diplomatic; they are very clever; they show that she followed all the operations of the war in the minutest details. She speaks of "our armies" in a most natural way: "The Duke of Burgundy is much to be pitied for beginning with something which is so difficult . . . nothing short of a miracle can save Lille. This great affair, sir, absorbs all our attention . . . but if it were not for you our inquietude would not be only for Flanders." She is flattering, encouraging; she has a noble and truly commanding style.

On the 15th of March, 1709, Villars was appointed to the command of the army of the North, and three days afterwards he was at Cambrai. Our affairs in Flanders were in a deplorable state. He set to work with his rare energy. "You alone, sir, console us. You make us perceive that we shall have an army; this army will be conducted by you, and this is perhaps the point to which God has wished to conduct us, to show us what revolutions he can make when it pleases him" (letter of Madame de Maintenon, April 8, 1709). Negotiations were going on while a new campaign was preparing. France was almost ruined. Villars developed in these trying circumstances a wonderful energy. Prince Eugène was saying loudly at the Hague that he would soon invade France; Madame de Maintenon, who informed Villars of it, added: "My hope is in God and in you." The coalition offered to France such terms that she could not accept them: the restitution of Alsace, the abdication of Philip V. Villars saved the honor of France at Denain; this victory allowed France to obtain the treaty of Rastadt, which was negotiated by Villars. During the two years which elapsed before the signature of this treaty the correspondence of Villars and of Madame de Maintenon was incessant, and, when it is published, it will be found to be greatly to the credit of the person to whom the great King had given his unbounded confidence.

ITALIAN INDUSTRIAL EXPOSITION.

MILAN, May 6, 1881.

WHILE the foreign press represents Italy as exclusively occupied with the question of Tunis, here we have their Majesties, the Prime Minister, the Minister of Agriculture, and hundreds of thousands of men of all classes, especially workmen, congregated in Milan for the opening of the first truly national exhibition of art and industry that has been held in the United Kingdom since it had existence. The result has astonished Italians themselves, and the comparatively few foreigners who have thought it worth their while to visit the "moral capital of Italy" at this juncture confess that they can hardly believe their eyes. For myself I own to experiencing the first pleasant sensation, the first hope for the future of Italy, since the proclamation of "one Italy with Rome for the capital" was proclaimed after the defeat of the French Empire at Sedan. Living in Rome you know about as much of real Italy as living in Washington you know about the United States. A short sojourn in the manufacturing and agricultural districts, especially of northern Italy, convinces you how artificial, how superficial is the Roman view of Italian life. At the present moment "all Lombardy" is intent on silkworm rearing, and the considerable space allotted to, and

the admirable exposition of all that concerns, this most important branch of Italian industry form one of the most attractive features of the great exhibition. Again, the increased tax on importation of cattle just voted by the French Chambers is a serious drawback to cattle-breeders in Italy; hence the bill presented to Parliament for the abolition of the export tax is for them of vital importance, even as the proposed abolition of the tax on salt, which weighs so heavily on the poor (salt being the only condiment to their wretched *polenta*), and also on the landed proprietors, who are obliged to economize this necessary ingredient in their manures because even the waters of the ocean are a Government monopoly! On these subjects you will hear the most animated discussions, but anent Tunis never a word. Yet Lombardy was the classic soil of revolution. No city has for courage and daredeviltry surpassed Milan in the "five days" when the unarmed populace expelled Radetzky from their midst. Ten years of passive resistance followed, then came deliverance. Again, till Venice, Naples, Sicily, Rome were free, Lombardy sent the flower of her sons either to the regular army or to the volunteers; and for this very reason they now decline to "play at revolution," feeling sure that Italy will never go to war to wrest the unredeemed provinces of the Tyrol and Trieste from Austria, and that no party or cabinet can mean seriously to despatch the *Duilio* or embark their riflemen for Tunis. The masses of workmen of all classes deplore the time wasted by a "crisis," the bad feeling raised between France and Italy; and accuse the "politicians" of appropriating the time and resources of the nation for their personal ambition and private ends.

This much was embodied in the address of the workmen who sent delegates to the general meeting on the eve of the Exposition, and that address fairly represents the feeling of the people. To-day, at any rate, the Expositions absorb all the interest left after attending to daily affairs. There are really five: the Industrial, the Artistic, the Horticultural, the Agricultural, the Musical. The first and third are those which most surprise people who knew the Italy of twenty years ago. Then almost all objects of common use, from a needle to a fine saw, from a side-saddle to a comfortable chair, had to be brought from abroad. An elastic band, much more a gutta-percha tube or sheet or bed for invalids or wounded, was unknown. Now the manufactory of Pirelli & Casassa can vie with the best factories of England or America. It was founded in 1872, and at first produced only the smallest objects; now it employs two hundred workmen, and has three steam-engines of one hundred and forty horse-power. It now supplies the navy, the paper manufactures, the hospitals with all the articles required; and a gutta-percha factory is well at work in the Exposition, producing, under the eyes of the spectators, tubes, balls, purses, elastic bands which would make an American smile, but which surprise Italians with the fact that they can be made "at home." No one will be much surprised to know that Genoa sends the finest velvets, Como the most perfect silks; but natives and foreigners stand astounded before the woollen cloth and cotton stuffs from the factories of Schio, Biella, and other parts of Italy. The woollen factory at Schio deserves special notice because the company, headed by Senator Rossi, work on the "division-of-profits" system. The colony, for it is nothing else, is a model colony, with its "cradle" (*crèche*), where the working mothers can bring their children at dawn and retake them at sunset; healthy nurses feeding them if the mother's work is too distant. Then there is the infant school, all the four classes of the common schools, the technical classes, a school at Vicenza for such scholars as show special aptitude, while for the rank and file there is the workshop ready with its "fair day's wages for a fair day's work." The workmen's houses are airy, healthy, and the men become householders by paying yearly instalments. And this is a *paying*, not a benevolent, institution. Here the capitalists receive interest for the money employed, and the men feel themselves human beings and not slaves. Cotton stuffs cut also a good figure. There are at present six hundred and forty-seven factories, employing fifty-three thousand hands. The cultivation of cotton has been tried in Italy with only partial success as yet, though it is asserted that both climate and soil are adapted for it.

The gallery devoted to engines and machines, to railway carriages of new invention, is really remarkable. I was specially attracted by an ambulance train which, in time of peace, by removing the furniture can be transformed into an ordinary passenger train. The first carriage contains the sleeping compartment for the surgeons and doctors, a capital library, and a pharmacy, equipped with every necessary—medicines, surgical instruments and appliances. You pass from one car to another as in America. In the second is the kitchen, fitted up with boiler, oven, stove, etc. Then comes the sleeping-car for the wounded, capable of receiving eighteen patients, and giving them each a long, wide, airy berth. The litters being movable, the sufferer only has to be slung up and down to his perch; each berth has a window. There is a bed and all the necessaries for the attendants. In the adjoining car the wounded who do not need a reclining position can be received in double the number. Finally, there is the wardrobe and magazine—in short, a model ambulance train. This was invented in Italy and built entirely in Vicenza. The agricultural machines and implements are many and ingenious, and here

again it must be remembered that Italy twenty years ago had no other implements than those taken by Noah into the ark. Now you have a collection of threshing, reaping, sowing machines, the latter most ingenious and economical, for by moving a screw you can sow a larger or smaller quantity of grain according to the fertility of the soil, just as you can sow broadcast or in rows at will. Hoeing, raking, and weeding machines are all there, while the machines for threshing Indian corn are pronounced perfect.

But the chief attraction of the industrial exhibition is the department devoted to *bachicoltura*. Before the advent of the silkworm disease Lombardy and a great part of Venice possessed forests of mulberry-trees. Besides the immense rearing establishments, every peasant's wife kept her three or four ounces; the poorest day-laborer an ounce. Then the women who had no house-room went out as silk-worm nurses, getting their food and thirty francs for the season. Two million ounces of seed were hatched in Italy; one million in Lombardy alone. Taking the average in those days of fifty kilos of cocoons per ounce of eggs, you had one hundred millions of cocoons which were all spun, woven, and prepared for the loom in Italy. The *atrofia* or *pebrina* appeared, and the entire crop was swept away, just as was the potato in Ireland. Some said that the disease was in the eggs, others in the mulberry. The former idea prevailed, and seed was imported from Japan and from China. Still this, though healthy the first year, does not stand reproduction, and the expense of importation is enormous. Moreover, you can never secure the perfect seed, as the Japanese keep that for themselves. Hence the one aim of the Government and of the silkworm-rearers has been to restore the native race to its pristine splendor, and to acclimatize the foreign breeds so that they can be reproduced at home. The Lombards now flatter themselves that this has been accomplished, and in the first "gallery of work" the processes of hatching, feeding, sleeping, cocoon-making, transformation of the chrysalis, marriage, egg-laying, and death are all performed in their various stages before the naked eye. The *bachicultori* attribute the greatest importance to the selection of the butterflies, male and female; these are put into small gauze bags, and only the eggs laid during the first two hours are kept for next year's crop. They have to be kept at a certain temperature during the summer, winter, and spring months, and are repeatedly examined with the microscope invented for the purpose, in order to see that no malady has supervened. Endless are the new inventions for suffocating the worms in the cocoons for the purpose of spinning off the silk; no less than eight different furnaces are on show. Then come the different methods of winding off the silk from the cocoons after they come out of the furnace, some by hand, some by steam; others for throwing, winding, twisting the golden hanks, for combing off any fluff that remains, so that the snow-white or golden hanks are flawless and bright when purchased by the manufacturers.

The difficulty of securing and rearing healthy seed is, it is believed, overcome; but another grave question faces the silkworm-rearers, and that is the diminished price of the *bozzoli*. In the olden days Italian cocoons fetched five, six, seven, and even eight francs per kilo. Now that Japan and China have flooded Europe with their raw material, it is rare to get more than three francs for foreign, four for native cocoons; and this scarcely pays the cost of production, if you calculate the expensive plantations of mulberry-trees, the price of the seed (this year nineteen and twenty francs per cartoon or ounce), the labor, and the cost of frames and (if, as this year, the season is capricious) of firewood. The problem now to be solved is a reduction of expenditure. Every silkworm-rearer, large or small, must be able to save his seed from one year to another, or else large establishments must be able to produce it at a very small cost. The mulberries must be grown in larger quantities and on some less costly system. Some method of economizing the leaves and hand labor must be found, and then Italy may once more regain her pre-eminence in this department. The gallery devoted almost entirely to silk, with its marvellously beautiful, hard, heavy, spotless cocoons, actually spun by the worms before your eyes, shows that the great difficulties are over, and that the secondary ones will yet be overcome.

It will take a month to visit fairly the Expositions, but such time spent will be well repaid by the satisfaction to be derived from the palpable, visible fact that Italy, after achieving her political independence, has set herself so resolutely to achieve her emancipation from foreign industry, and to prove that in natural productions and native manufactures she intends to be second to none and unrivalled in more than one department. Each of the departments of the Ministries of War, of the Navy, and of the Interior have separate *kioskos*, which are exceedingly interesting. The ceramic and glass departments each require a separate article. The tramway-carriage and omnibus department surprises foreigners. The Pompeian Hall, where the costumes of all the provinces of Italy are gathered, with the different cooking-utensils, head-ornaments, and implements of labor, is a precious boon to artists. I have only given a most cursory glance at the art exhibit, but with a few rare exceptions, such as six *chefs d'œuvre* from the brush of Induno, I should say that it was vastly inferior to that of Turin. But Italy can afford to rest on her oars for a while in artistic matters, sure to win the race when it be her mind so to do.

M.

Correspondence.

CHOOSING THE PRESIDENT BY LOT.

TO THE EDITOR OF THE NATION:

SIR: I do not often omit any portion of the *Nation*, but I find that I have done so with a letter of "Spectator," in the issue of March 31, in which he says that he "once heard a distinguished statesman seriously advocate, in private conversation, the choosing of the President by lot from the Senate." "Spectator" may be interested to know that the proposition was not only advocated in private conversation, but formally brought before the Senate as a proposed amendment to the Constitution, by Senator Hillhouse, of Connecticut, in April, 1808. His amendment provided (1) for reducing the term of representatives to one year, (2) for reducing the term of senators to three years, and (3) for the choice of a President by lot from the Senate, to serve one year. His arguments in favor of his amendment, which "Spectator" will find in 3 Benton's Debates of Congress, pp. 607-611, are full and quite strong, and are summed up (in part) as follows:

- "1. It will make the Senate more respectable.
- "2. It is prompt and certain.
- "3. It will avoid the evils of a disputed election, now [and ever since] unprovided for in the Constitution.
- "4. It will exclude intrigue and cabal.
- "5. It gives talent and modest merit an equal chance.
- "6. It is economical.
- "7. It gives to the people a President of the United States, and not the chief of a party.
- "8. It removes temptation to use power otherwise than for public good."

Senator Hillhouse's amendment was never acted upon. Perhaps some of his arguments in its favor might still be applicable.

J.

NORWALK, CONN., May 13, 1881.

A LITERARY OUTRAGE.

TO THE EDITOR OF THE NATION:

SIR: For excellent but most uninteresting reasons I was away from my post until the so-called "Beaconsfield article" was in type, done for *Quiz* by a well-meaning friend to whose ears Mr. Davin's name had not made music, but who rescued the little pamphlet from the purgatory of a second-hand book-shop, and, thinking it timely, sent it in. I discovered it was made up from the pamphlet by its author only in time to give him the responsibility of it, which I purposely did for two reasons: the first being that he might have any real or imaginary honor that should accrue from its compilation (for a compilation, and from Beaconsfield, Isaac D'Israeli, a Hebrew paper, and two journalistic "facts," it certainly is), and, the second, that he might shoulder the responsibility of an article that simply *was* a compilation. Had it not been for an accident at the last moment, to which any journal is liable, I should have drawn my editorial pen through it and marked the matter "dead."

If the person feeling himself outraged accuses me of careless editing I may only bow my head to save it from instant decapitation; but when he accuses me through *Quiz* of wronging him in any way, or talks of "a sale" which the pamphlet has in the States, he is saying what is the reverse of anything like a semblance of the truth. And I am sure if you choose to put your editorial microscope upon the matter it will show you, as it has others among your honored confrères, a desire for gratuitous advertising.

Yours respectfully, ED. "QUIZ."

PHILADELPHIA, May 12, 1881.

BAR EXAMINATIONS.

TO THE EDITOR OF THE NATION:

SIR: I wish to call your attention to an article on "Admission to the Bar" in the last number of the *American Law Review*. It is a subject in which the members of the Bar in every State must feel the keenest interest; and I hope the influence of the *Nation* will be given to sow throughout the land the suggestions so clearly expressed in this article.

The ideal method of bar examinations is to have them the same for the whole country, as in England. But as we cannot expect that, at least for a long time, it will be a great step in advance if each State would have a single board of examiners.

In course of time these examiners might consult with each other in regard to the acquirements necessary for admission to the bar of each State, and in this way gradually equalize them.

It may not be beyond every possibility of the future that these boards should some time combine so far, at least, as to agree upon the examination papers, and thus make them the same for every State.

The great advantage of a method of pleading common to the courts of all

the States would become more apparent; and the benefit to all classes of the community of a higher standard in the legal profession would be practically unlimited.—Respectfully,

D. B. HOAR.

BOSTON, May 16, 1881.

Notes.

A. C. ARMSTRONG & SON will have ready for delivery by the end of this month vol. ii. of the American Catalogue—the subject portion—which will doubtless, as they predict, be consulted even more frequently than vol. i. The value of the completed work cannot easily be exaggerated.—Robert Clarke & Co. have in preparation 'The Northwest in 1634, with a Sketch of the Life of John Nicolet, the Discoverer,' by C. W. Butterfield; 'Spanish Americans,' by F. Hassaurek; and 'Miami Woods,' a volume of poems by Wm. D. Gallagher.—'The Philosophy of Carlyle,' by Edwin D. Mead, is in the press of Houghton, Mifflin & Co.—A new and enlarged edition of Miss Amy Fay's 'Music Study in Germany' is promised by Jansen, McClurg & Co.—Ginn & Heath have issued a partial catalogue of their proposed college series of Greek authors, already announced by us as to be edited by Professors John Williams White, of Harvard, and Lewis R. Packard, of Yale. Some of the co-laborers are Professors T. D. Seymour, F. D. Allen, M. W. Humphreys, W. W. Goodwin, I. T. Beckwith, Isaac Flagg, M. L. D'Ooge, C. D. Morris, Irving J. Manatt, W. G. Frost, etc., etc. There will be two editions, one with notes on the same page with the text, and one of simple text. Three years will be consumed in completing the issue.—The Smithsonian Institution has just published the 'Memorial of Joseph Henry' ordered by Congress. It consists of the funeral proceedings, the exercises at the Capitol, the action of societies, etc., concluding with the act of Congress authorizing a bronze statue of Henry by W. W. Story.—The Concord Summer School of Philosophy will open for its third term on Monday, July 11, and continue for five weeks, with eleven lectures weekly, at the Hillside Chapel, near the Orchard House. All students should be registered on or before July 1 at the office of the Secretary, F. B. Sanborn, in Concord. Mr. Alcott delivers the opening address (as well as the valedictory), and Mr. Stedman will read a poem. Professor Harris, Dr. Jones, President Porter, Mr. J. Elliot Cabot, Dr. Hedge, Dr. Bartol, Mrs. Howe, Miss Peabody, Mrs. Cheney, are among the lecturers announced.—A well-considered memorial tribute to the late Professor J. Lewis Diman, prepared for the Massachusetts Historical Society by Edward J. Young, will appear in the Proceedings of that Society. Professor Diman's Lowell Institute lectures on 'The Theistic Argument as affected by Recent Discoveries' will soon be published, under the editorship of Professor George P. Fisher, by Houghton, Mifflin & Co.—Mr. Charles M. Kurtz's illustrated 'American Academy Notes' (Cassell & Co.) has passed from a first edition of 5,000 copies to a second, without the introduction, however, of any new matter.—Our enquiry last week as to the fate of the New York Coffee-House Company (limited) brings us by way of response a bill of fare, presumably of current date, which shows that the Company have two rooms open, one at 520 Grand Street, another at 515 Greenwich Street. We hope this is only a beginning.—Ollendorff of Paris announces a volume of 'Esquisses Américaines,' freely translated from Mark Twain by M. Émile Blémont; and in Mme. Th. Bentzon's second series of 'Contes de tous les pays,' only recently published, the American contribution is a condensation of Mr. Bret Harte's "Gabriel Conroy." On the other side of the Rhine the latest American contributions to the Tauchnitz series are Mr. Aldrich's 'Stillwater Tragedy' and Mr. James's 'Washington Square.' Mark Twain's new book has already been included in the series.—Mr. Edmund W. Gosse has done a good thing, and has done it very well, in editing a selection of 'English Odes' (London: C. Kegan Paul & Co.; New York: Scribner & Welford), and the publishers have sent it forth in fitting attire—tough paper, uncut edges, gilt top, rubricated title-page, a woodcut vignette printed on India-paper as a frontispiece, and a binding of pure white vellum. Mr. Gosse prefixes a brief introduction defining the principle on which he has made his selection. He has confined himself strictly within the limits of his title, and the forty-seven odes collected in these two hundred and fifty pages, and ranging from Spenser to Swinburne, are all the handiwork of English writers, no American work being admitted.—"Collection Spemann" is a handy library of useful and entertaining literature undertaken by the well-known Stuttgart publisher. Its merit, apart from the selections, consists in its charming form and typography and binding of blue cloth, and in its extremely low price of one mark a volume. The first volume embraces two tales, 'Phosphorus Hollunder' and 'Zu Füssen des Monarchen,' by Louise von François, and in the long list to be fulfilled hereafter we find represented Cervantes, Anson (Voyage round the World), Gogol, Le Sage, Cooper, Irving, Götz von Berlichingen, Mme. de Sévigné, Manzoni, Von der Trenck, Kleist, Scott, St.-Simon, Stilling, Rousseau, Franklin, H. Walpole, Poe, Bulwer, and many others. B. Westermann & Co. are the American agents.

—The absence of a catalogue and a marked superficial resemblance led to the mistake, in our notice of the Decorative Art Society's present exhibition, a fortnight ago, of some imitations of Mrs. Holmes's landscape embroideries for inferior works by her own hand. But one of those on exhibition is hers, the rest being "merely copies," we are informed by the Society.

—Eight hundred thousand copies of the revised version of the New Testament were ordered in advance of the New York and Philadelphia publishers, and since its appearance last Friday the unusual spectacle has been witnessed of the Scriptures hawked about the streets and in the cars and for sale at every news-stand in a variety of forms. The *Tribune* is moved to conjecture that "possibly we are on the eve of a great revival of Christianity," and the other papers, though less "thoughtful," have made a "sensation" of the event, and exhibited it in all its aspects and with extreme copiousness. The *Chicago Times*, we believe, had most of it telegraphed from here, and the *Tribune*, of the same city, published it entire in an extra on Sunday. Sunday, too, it was the universal pulpit-topic; and the utterances of the various preachers show almost a unanimity of favorable reception. The Committee of American Revisers were considerably more radical in their suggested changes than their English coadjutors, being even opposed to the retention of the "S." in the titles of the Gospels, for example, and the community in general, or at least the ecclesiastical portion of it, appears to have shared their views, and to find little or nothing to regret in any details of the revision. Dr. Roswell D. Hitchcock expresses the most qualified praise we have noticed in saying to an "interviewer" that the work was "not in every respect what the scholarship of the country might expect," though he adds that it was "the best the Committee could do, all things considered." However, he appears to have no especial attachment to the authorized version, and has "no objection to any number of revised translations, provided that purity and perfection are the only points aimed at," since (according to the reporter) he "does not believe that the inspiration of the Scriptures is carried into the languages into which they may have been translated, but is confined to those in which they were written originally." The Baptists should perhaps be excepted from the consensus of applause, as they find Pædobaptist prejudices respected in the revision. In England, where the sales have been much larger, its reception, or at least its press reception, has been quite different. The *Times* expresses dissatisfaction, and the *Standard*, in an article whose tone at all events is admirable, says: "Whatever scholars may think of the labors of the revisers, the impression produced upon the public mind is one of disappointment." This proceeds from a feeling which, so far as we have remarked, has as yet scarcely found an echo in any public utterance on this side of the water, though it is to be expected that sooner or later it will. As the *Standard* expresses it, the revisers have, even in places where no change in sense or substance was requisite, "nevertheless thought themselves justified in mending the English and improving the grammar of passages which have struck deep root in the hearts and memories of the English people." One effect of the revision may be referred to here, namely, the calling of public attention to the manuscript documents on which all versions rest. It is probable that the popular notion of the revision has been that it contemplated merely a revised translation, whereas it is now explained to be in equal part a revision of the original text in the light of the science of Biblical criticism as well. Some congregations doubtless learned from their preachers last Sunday for the first time that there were 150,000 different Greek readings, 1,760 different MSS., and that the oldest of the latter dates only from the fourth century. The changes, we believe, affect no doctrinal tenets, though the Rev. Edward Everett Hale, we notice, is pleased that "Trinitarians" will no longer be able to quote to him certain verses long known to be spurious.

—Mr. Dorman B. Eaton addresses himself in the *North American Review* for June to the refutation of Judge Tourgee's recent utterance therein on the civil service, with the result of proving the needlessness of the task, and with equal success in the June *Lippincott's* to quieting the fears of an aristocracy of officeholders should the reform go into effect, some time ago expressed in that magazine. In both articles, which cover substantially the same ground, he makes a clear statement of the aim and significance of the reform, and this, considering the misconceptions prevalent even yet, cannot be done too often, apparently. As to the objection that the reform, the return to the old system, will create a special and obnoxious official class, Mr. Eaton points out that this is just what we have now, and that the system of appointments is at the farthest possible remove from a popular system, being wholly in the hands of bosses and henchmen. As to the President's notion about short fixed terms, he shows that, in the first place, it would mean nothing as a check upon removals—witness the case of Collector Merritt—and, in the second, that "every political speculator, all the managers of caucusses and rings, every demagogue and desperate adventurer in politics, will welcome the shortest term he can get, for under it he can see more frequent and better chances of offices and spoils." Under a quadrennial term, moreover, at least one place in the Treasury Department at Washington would have to be filled every day

in the year, at the New York Post-office nearly three hundred novices would take the places of trained men each year, and four hundred changes occur annually in the Custom-house. The truth is that the just prescriptions of the reform are very simple, and any effort to substitute others for them can only proceed from unworthy motives and result in speedy discomfiture when candidly examined. There is, however, a certain plausibility about the "fixed tenure and short terms" notion, in the complete pricking of which Mr. Eaton has performed a grateful public service. The other papers of note in *Lippincott's* are an entertaining study of Southwestern life, entitled "Among the Cow Boys"; Dr. Oswald's third contribution upon "Zoölogical Curiosities," and a good article by Rowland Connor on the shady side of "Moral Reformers." The stories are of flimsy texture, though a brief Russian tale is rather lively, and the serial, "Craque O'Doom," reaches a climax of absurd sense and taste, if not the climax of the plot.

—A distinct endeavor to recur to the literary flavor which gave the *Atlantic* its character in popular estimation long ago is observable in the June number. Mr. John Burroughs in "A Taste of Maine Birch," Miss Edith Thomas in "A Spring Opening," and Mrs. Helen Hunt Jackson in "Bergen Days" contribute agreeably to this. Mr. Charles Egbert Craddock essays the same thing in a sketch of Alleghanian incident and character, entitled "Over on the T'other Mounting," but without success. The danger of the attempt is considerable, and well enough understood (outside of the more impassioned literary circles, we suppose) to consist in the dismalness of the failure which awaits you if you don't succeed. The reader of this effort will not escape a sense of irritation that his persistence is so ill rewarded with either substance or color. Miss Thomas's fragment, on the other hand, is very charming and—her name is new to us, at least—witnesses the unusual circumstance of a real addition to the number of magazine essayists. "A Spring Opening" has a strong infusion of Thoreau, having not only the intrinsic characteristic of intimacy with nature, but the external marks of decorating discourse about her; but aside from the fact that any sympathetic reflection of Thoreau is agreeable, the echo here is clearly natural, and to the traits which she shares Miss Thomas adds a peculiar poetic ardor of her own, which concentrates her attention on the natural phenomena with which she is occupied, in an endeavor to express from them their essences, instead of seeing analogies and suggestions of import in them. Altogether we shall ourselves undertake to read all she may write in a similar vein. "The Indoor Pauper: A Study" is really a study, attentively pursued, by Octave Thanet of a matter, each fresh exposure of which seems calculated to make the blood of philanthropism boil, but interest in which is "lightly laid again" in a community that understands so little the meaning of the word "administration," and entrusts its inspection to amateur benevolence. The author fortifies her revelations with copious references to official and other reports, though she is betrayed occasionally into a loose statement; e.g., "When a New Hampshire poor-house burns down no one seems to know where the keys to the cells are"; this happened once only, so far as the article shows. The generally excellent execution of a task involving the labor evidently performed here ought not to be passed over. "Who Lost Waterloo?" is a question examined with care and discussed with much explicitness by Mr. John C. Ropes, who concludes that Grouchy is largely chargeable with the disaster, and lied about it freely. Mr. Richard Grant White expresses a very poor opinion of "French Tragedy," which he thinks formal and cold, and wholly inferior to Shakspeare in divers important respects, and maintains that France is the only civilized country which has no national drama. Carlyle's "Reminiscences" are the subject of a short note, as good as it is brief; the other good review is an equally brief one on Palustre's "La Renaissance en France." The serials are continued, and in this instalment of "The Portrait of a Lady" Mr. James is at his best. The "Contributors' Club," by the way, has a good paragraph upon his work in general.

—There are three literary articles in the *International Review* for June, of which the réchauffé of gossip about Lady Mary Wortley Montagu and the critical disquisition upon George Eliot may be skipped. Mr. Matthews's paper on the younger Dumas discusses *seriatim* the dramas of that clever writer with considerable reprehension for their moral delinquencies, but as much without prejudice as without predilection. No critical consideration seems to escape the scrutiny of his detailed examination, but if he had made all this for himself and presented the result, his readers would have had a portrait of Dumas instead of a chronological study of his works. The latter, whatever its conclusions, of necessity implies, it strikes us, an exaggeration of Dumas's importance, whereas he is certainly, as Mr. Matthews shows, picturesque though difficult material for literary sketching of a light order. In "An Experiment in College Government" Mr. John M. Gregory describes the peculiarities of a students' régime at the Illinois State University, where four hundred youth manage themselves according to a constitution which provides various popular forms of government machinery. The penalties are fines, and the President of the College has the power of veto and may remove or suspend from college at his pleasure. Thus the students' organization is a substitute for

the Continental universities' plan of letting the civil authorities govern the students and the ordinary American plan of Faculty supervision. The writer says the experiment has been a success, but we fancy Illinois is a more favorable field for its demonstration than the East would be. The fun of this kind of thing would naturally be best appreciated in communities whose educated classes have not yet become a prey to an unpatriotic disgust for "politics"; among the Illinois boys, Mr. Gregory says: "The contests are sometimes warm and exciting, and call out as much electioneering skill and energy as the elections in larger bodies," and doubtless the experience thus gained will be valuable to them in the practical work of Illinois life. "The Pioneers of the Sierra Madre" are genially described by Mr. A. A. Hayes, and it does not appear that they are very different from what other writers upon the same subject have led us to believe. "A Forgotten Astronomer" is Professor Holden's title for a review of Professor Olmsted's "Life and Letters of Ebenezer Porter Mason." A Russian article on the Czar's assassination referred to and a paper on "The Zulu Kafirs," by Élie Reclus, the most valuable contribution of the number, complete the table of contents.

—Census Bulletin No. 127, by Robert P. Porter, contains a statement of the valuation of property, of county indebtedness and of taxation for State and county purposes, for the State of California. The total assessed valuation of real estate is \$466,273,585; of personal property, including in this every thing excepting real estate, \$118,304,451. The total per capita valuation is \$676 05, which is very high in comparison with other States. The total bonded indebtedness is \$5,621,212; floating indebtedness, \$1,992,932; making a total indebtedness per capita of \$8 80. The State tax for school support is \$1,362,665; for other than school purposes, \$1,853,112. The county tax for school support is \$572,553; for other purposes, \$3,486,918. The rate of State tax for school support is 2.33 mills on the dollar; for other purposes, 3.17 mills. The average rate of county tax for school support is a little less than one mill on a dollar, while for other purposes it is nearly six mills; making a total taxation of about one and one-fourth per cent., exclusive of that for municipal purposes in the cities.

—Bulletin No. 141 contains a brief abstract of the statistics of the daily press of the country. In the expression "daily press" are included the semi-weekly, tri-weekly, weekly, and Sunday papers published in connection with dailies. The table gives only the numbers of such periodicals, with their circulation and average subscription rates, by totals of States. Without quoting the full tables, which are very extensive, the following statistics relating to the whole United States are abstracted:

Dailies.

Total.....	962
Morning.....	436
Evening.....	546

Papers connected with dailies.

Weekly.....	682
Semi-weekly.....	44
Tri-weekly.....	39
Sunday.....	138
Dailies established during census year, included in above,	114
"suspended " " " " " "	80

Papers published in foreign languages.

German dailies.....	81
Weeklies, etc., connected therewith.....	111
Dailies in other foreign languages.....	9

Average subscription price.

Dailies.....	\$7 33
Weeklies.....	1 82

Average circulation.

Dailies.....	2,800
Weeklies connected with dailies.....	3,509
Semi-weeklies " ".....	2,332
Tri-weeklies " ".....	965
Sunday papers " ".....	8,476
German dailies.....	2,870
Weeklies, etc., connected with German dailies.....	4,686

Aggregate circulation.

Dailies.....	3,581,187
Weeklies connected with dailies.....	3,121,890
Semi-weeklies " ".....	156,344
Tri-weeklies " ".....	39,890
Sunday papers " ".....	724,671
German dailies.....	321,204
Weeklies, etc., connected with German dailies.....	487,798

The total number of dailies includes both those established and suspended during the census year.

—In the total number of newspapers, as well as aggregate daily circulation, New York State, of course, leads, having 115 dailies, with a total daily cir-

ulation of 990,620, while the average subscription price is \$7 20. Pennsylvania is second on the list, with 98 dailies, having an aggregate daily circulation of 597,417. Illinois is third, with 73 dailies; then Ohio and California, with 54 each; then Missouri, with 42; Indiana, with 40; Massachusetts, with 35; while three States, Iowa, Michigan, and Texas, have 30 or more. Going to the other end of the list, Florida and West Virginia have but 3 each; and Delaware, Mississippi, South Carolina, and Vermont have but 5 each. There are ten States, besides the District of Columbia and the Territories, which have less than 10 dailies each. The average subscription price of dailies being \$7 33, and the circulation being 3,581,187, the people of the United States pay annually the sum of \$26,250,100 71 for daily papers. It is to be regretted that statistics showing the distribution, by States, of the newspaper circulation have not been collected. It would probably, however, have been well-nigh impossible to obtain full statistics of this kind.

—Almost on the eve of preparation for observing the coming transit of Venus (the 6th of December of next year) the first portion of the American observations of the last transit, December 8-9, 1874, is published by the American Commission. We learn from the editor's preface that, in the issue of these observations, the scheme presented by the Astronomer Royal of England to the Royal Astronomical Society, in March, 1875, has been adhered to so far as seemed necessary and practicable; but we confess to no small degree of astonishment that, at so late a day, the Commission should have thought it wise to follow the appended dictum of the *Astronomische Gesellschaft*—"Publikationen von Einzelresultaten für die Sonnenparallaxe aus den Beobachtungen des Venusdurchgangs von 1874 sind als die Interessen der Wissenschaft beeinträchtigend thunlich zu vermeiden"—a sentiment well enough in its way, perhaps, at the time it was proposed, but now open to very serious objection, and to which we believe no nation having any separate result in shape for publication has paid the slightest regard. The entire amount of Congressional appropriation for this transit of Venus appears to have been something like \$160,000. It will be remembered that the stations originally selected for occupation by the American parties were three in the northern hemisphere—Siberia, Japan, and China; and five in the southern—Crozet Islands, Kerguelen's Land, Tasmania, New Zealand, and Chatham. The wisdom of this selection will be apparent from the fact that, should the northern observations fail completely, the long line of the southern stations would still suffice for a good determination of the sun's parallax. In fact, there were three groups of stations, the combination of observations at any two of which would furnish a reliable parallax. As is well known, the Crozet party failed to effect a landing, and were afterwards stationed as an additional party in Tasmania.

—The points pertaining to the instrumental equipment of the parties, their organization and preliminary practice, are too generally known to need allusion here. The greatest interest and importance will attach to the third chapter of the present volume, entitled the "Discussion of the Photographic Operations," wherein is described an essentially new instrument, the photo-heliograph; the method of its use is detailed, and a neat general investigation of the mathematical formulæ for the reduction of the photographs is given. Herein also are presented, mostly in tabular form, the reduction-elements of all the photographs of the late transit, more than two hundred in number; but, in accordance with the resolutions adopted by the Commission, no value of the solar parallax is worked out from them, although they appear to be in convenient shape for such a result. We may mention here that Mr. Todd, of Washington, has recently published (though we are not aware that his paper has yet appeared in detail) a value of the sun's parallax which he has obtained from these photographs equal to 8".88—a result which will possess a good deal of interest at this time, and which is sufficiently large to suit well the fancy of a few investigators whose researches have led them to believe that the sun is much nearer than it really is. Most astronomers, however, will regard this result in confirmation of the opinion, rapidly gaining ground of late, that a trustworthy value of this important astronomical constant is not obtainable from transits of Venus at all. Chapter iv. and Appendix ii. deal with the optical observations of the transit. The Commission has left these in much the same condition as the photographs, and some importance would attach to a derivation of an independent value of the parallax from these observations alone, though it has come to light that observations of this sort, once thought so definite and trustworthy, give rise to a solar parallax of most obliging elasticity—in truth, any investigator may reasonably get from them any value he likes. Were we not aware of the delay which customarily attends the completion of enterprises of such magnitude, we should express the hope that the remaining parts (ii., iii. and iv.) might be issued at an early date, that thus the entire American work might be rendered serviceable to investigators, who ought to have these results before a value of the solar parallax can be definitively worked out which will serve the purposes of astronomers of all nations for a half-century or more to come.

LODGE'S SHORT HISTORY OF THE ENGLISH COLONIES IN AMERICA.*

THE distinctive and original feature of Mr. Lodge's work is a very special treatment of the social, economic, political, and religious status of the individual American colonies in and about the year 1765, the year of the Stamp Act Congress in New York and of the opening struggle for Federal independence. The other parts of the volume, relating to early colonial and later Revolutionary events, are historical sketches, rapid summaries based upon existing literature, and making no pretence to original research, although they contain much that will interest the general reader. The chapters concerning the condition of the American people at the dawn of their Federal life are the fruit of independent study, and constitute a most valuable contribution to American history. Although most of the materials employed in the construction of what may be called the monograph portion of this work already exist in printed form, yet much of this historical matter is now so rare or inaccessible that it has almost the flavor of rediscovered sources, like Bradford's long-lost manuscript, the 'History of Plymouth Plantation.'

In the arrangement of the contents of his volume Mr. Lodge has interwoven the two kinds of work, the introductory and the monographic portions, for the sake of greater continuity and completeness in the treatment of individual colonies. With the exception of the New England group he has devoted two chapters, one introductory and one special, to each colony—for example, "Virginia from 1606 to 1765" and "Virginia in 1765." The New England colonies are treated separately in introductory chapters—for example, "Massachusetts from 1620 to 1765," and then collectively, in a special chapter, entitled "New England in 1765." Beginning with Virginia, Maryland, the Carolinas, and Georgia (a somewhat unusual mode of procedure for a New England writer), Mr. Lodge returns from the far South, by way of Delaware, Pennsylvania, New Jersey, and New York, to the sacred soil of Massachusetts, and treats of New England last. He finishes up his work as he proceeds, and presents a complete history of each colonial establishment from its foundation down to the time of the Stamp Act, without compelling the reader's attention to wander up and down the Atlantic seaboard in chronological journeys, suited only to accidental dates or to the convenience of annalists. At the close of the volume three supplementary chapters are given concerning the causes and results of the American Revolution, thus concluding in a concise and rapid sketch the account of the English colonies in America.

Such a work is especially valuable to the student of American constitutional history, in the wide sense of that term, for this Union did not originate in the written Constitution, nor yet in the Articles of Confederation, nor in the Declaration of Independence. The germs of the American federal republic lie far back in colonial history. Before the middle of the seventeenth century, says Lodge (p. 15), "the first step toward federation was taken in the passage of an act ratifying and regulating commerce" between Virginia and Maryland. Not long after, in 1651, through the influence of Cromwell, was passed the Navigation Act, "as a war measure, by the Long Parliament, the first of the famous series which led ultimately to the revolt of the colonies" (p. 17). But, in spite of the restrictive policy of Cromwell in requiring American products to be brought to English ports alone, the commercial spirit of the American colonies was fostered by his protection, and they were brought closer together in a common relation to England and to one another. Treaties for the common defence against the Indians were made between the various New England colonies and between New England and New York. The federal spirit widened continually. "In 1684 Virginia sent delegates to Albany to meet the agents of Massachusetts and the Governor of New York, in order to discuss the Indian troubles. Thus another uncertain step was taken on the road to confederation. Every step of this nature, no matter how trifling, acquires importance in marking the slow stages by which the principle of union rose by external pressure from the jarring interests of separate colonies" (p. 24). In the year 1740 the American colonies joined with the mother country in an expedition against Carthage, fruitless, indeed, but "one more step in the development of union" (p. 28). This forward movement was hastened by the French and Indian wars, which, closed by the treaty of Paris, in 1763, left the English colonies in virtual possession of a vast tract of common territory lying back of their seaboard settlements. The common cause of colonial defence first united all the colonies in a kind of commonwealth, and in the territorial conquests acquired from the French by the blood and treasure of all lay a material basis for permanent union. "With the close of the French war the whole current of American history changes. Not only did that struggle bring the colonies together in a common cause, but it destroyed the power of France in America. Fear of France no longer bound the colonies to the parent state. Their loyalty in the future depended on the policy of England alone" (p. 36). The colonies were learning their own strength.

* 'A Short History of the English Colonies in America. By Henry Cabot Lodge.' New York: Harper & Brothers. 1881. 500 pp. octavo.

The Virginians had seen that English troops were not invincible. The failure of Braddock's expedition had convinced the planters and backwoodsmen of the superiority of militiamen and of native commanders like Washington. English military protection did not protect. The American colonies could defend themselves. The next question naturally was, Should America pay for inefficient protection of any sort, whether military or commercial? Taxes for the maintenance of English standing armies, parliamentary acts for the enforcement of England's commercial policy, these things brought on the American Revolution. "Virginia was the first to sound the alarm against the Stamp Act in the famous resolutions of May, 1765, introduced by Henry and advocated by him in the now celebrated speech comparing George III. to Caesar and Charles I." (p. 40).

It is rather remarkable, in the light of recent events, that the first awakening of an independent spirit in the Old Dominion should have been occasioned by an early desire on the part of the Virginians to readjust their debts, a desire which the mother country very properly attempted to curb. In 1755 the Virginia Assembly passed an act of readjustment, providing for the payment in money of all debts due in tobacco, reckoning tobacco at twopence a pound; but the weed rose to the price of sixpence a pound, and thus people were able to pay their tobacco-debts at a reduction of about sixty-six per cent. So well pleased with this arrangement were the majority of voters, who belonged to the debtor class, that in 1758 they tried it again, and with equal success. The clergy of the country, who had fixed salaries payable in tobacco, were among the principal sufferers by this readjusting process. They appealed to the King in council, and were supported in their claims both by him and by the court of Hanover County in a test case. The plaintiff, the Rev. James Maury, was ordered to go before a jury, who should determine damages. Before this jury, in the interest of the parish, appeared young Patrick Henry, who defended the readjusters, not upon legal but upon political grounds, and appealed so powerfully to the independent spirit of the Virginia jury that they awarded merely nominal damages. "The parson's cause," says Lodge (p. 39), "deserves lasting remembrance, because Henry gave utterance to the latent feeling of the community. He owed much of his greatness to being the first in Virginia, and the second in America, to express in words what every one was thinking more or less indistinctly. Henry's whole speech resolves itself into one proposition—the colony of Virginia must manage her own affairs in her own way, and she cannot brook outside interference."

The self-governing instincts of the Virginians and of all English colonists in America had been quickened into conscious activity by the gradual development of habits of political representation. In Virginia, for example, was summoned, in the year 1619, the House of Burgesses, "the first representative body in America." There were at that time eleven boroughs, each sending two burgesses. This system of representation was not unlike that first instituted in Plymouth colony, which, in 1638, ordered "That every Towne shall make choyce of two of their freemen and the Towne of Plymouth of foure to be Committees or deputies to joyn with the Bench to enact lawes and ordinances" (Plym. Col. Rec., Laws, p. 31). In the year 1639 deputies from seven towns met at Plymouth; but twenty years before, eleven Virginia boroughs or plantations sent their delegates to Jamestown. It is interesting to note in passing that the New England towns were originally called "plantations," and that the name survives to this day in the State of Maine. Mr. Blaine reported to the chairman of the Republican National Committee, after the late Presidential election, that there were "a few distant plantations" whose returns came in somewhat late. It is also interesting that the early laws of the Plymouth plantations and of the Virginia boroughs related to much the same matters—for example, agrarian concerns, the management of cattle and swine, police regulations, the support of the ministry, etc. As early as 1624 the Virginia House of Burgesses had laid the foundations of constitutional government in America. By an act of that year the Governor was not "to lay any taxes or impositions upon the colony, their lands, or other way than by the authority of the General Assembly, to be levied and employed as said Assembly shall appoint." Burgesses were to be free from arrest during the discharge of their duty as representatives of the people. In the time of the Commonwealth (1653) the Assembly had secured the right of electing their own Speaker, and a half-century later they had in their hands the election of the Treasurer. "There were, in the year 1760, one hundred and ten burgesses, two from each county, and one from Jamestown, Williamsburg, Norfolk, and the college respectively. They received one hundred and twenty pounds of tobacco, or about twelve shillings a day, and were elected by the freeholders, who were alone entitled to vote. No act could become law without the assent of both Houses and of the Governor, besides the ratification of the King in council. Such was the government of Virginia; English and practical, but very far from being symmetrical or theoretically perfect" (p. 48). And such, as regards constitutional principles and habits of representation, was the government of every English colony in America. What particularly impresses the student of colonial institutions is the fact that they were copied so closely after English models. Bur-

gesses and delegates were the Commons of America. The Governor and his Council (which in Virginia became the Upper House) represented the Crown and its allied interests.

Perhaps the clearest evidence that the American colonies were guided by English precedents may be seen in the county system, which was early established throughout all the colonies. The Plymouth plantations, with "the chiefe government tyed to the towne of Plymouth" (Plym. Col. Rec., i. 16), were originally but the reproduction of an English county, with Plymouth as the shire town and with the Plymouth constable acting as high sheriff for the whole government. As the plantations spread, it became necessary to subdivide into three counties, Plymouth, Barnstable, and Bristol, which was done in 1685. The county system of Virginia, as Dr. William Palmer has so well shown in his admirable introduction to the Calendar of Virginia State Papers, was the most exact reflection of the old shire system of England. Probably no English colony in America approached nearer to the mother country in its types of local self-government, in county and parish, than did old Virginia. Mr. Lodge has done a valuable bit of work in describing the system of county courts and county judges as they used to be in that section of country.

"In the year 1765 there were inferior courts, known as county courts, sitting once a month at the county town, and the general court, composed of the Governor and council, which sat twice a year at Jamestown as a court of oyer and terminer, and to hear appeals. Quarter-sessions were also held at county towns by members of the quorum, and by those of the general court on the circuit. The county courts were composed of the gentlemen of the county, appointed as judges by the Governor. They were eight in number, and, as finally arranged, superseded the private courts held by individual planters in the early part of the seventeenth century. Four judges sufficed to constitute a quorum, and the bench of the county court was thus filled by country gentlemen or planters, able and judicious persons, in the language of the statute, but wholly innocent of any legal training. With the natural aptitude of their race, however, they administered substantial justice between man and man, and were respected and obeyed by their neighbors as the best, wisest, and wealthiest men among them."

From such rude beginnings of justice, dispensed originally by Virginia planters acting as justices of the peace upon their own plantations, like the English country gentlemen upon their estates or throughout the towns and parishes belonging to their jurisdiction, developed a body of aristocratic justices in every Virginia county, more like their English prototypes than any county judges this country has ever seen. By their sovereign appointment and by their social position, placed high above all popular influences and mercenary considerations, it may be doubted whether even the Supreme Court of the United States has maintained a loftier standard of judicial honor and a more untarnished name. Although in early times pettifogging lawyers were not held in high repute by the country gentry of Virginia, who preferred to settle legal disputes in a clean-handed way, and who, in 1646, actually prohibited attorneys' fees, yet in colonial times a class of professional lawyers had developed in the Old Dominion who deserved to rank with any in the land. "It was at this period that such men as Patrick Henry, Jefferson, George Mason, and Wythe studied law, and were admitted to the bar, which found its crowning glory in John Marshall, the greatest name of all those which have adorned the legal profession in America" (p. 53).

For the student of American local institutions one of the most suggestive portions of Mr. Lodge's work is his reference to the old parish system of Virginia. In the eulogies that have been expended upon the towns and town-meetings of New England it seems rarely to have occurred to New England orators and historians that both the South and the North have, to a great extent, a common inheritance in the matter of local institutions, that Southern parishes and New England towns were derived from the same English stock. According to the authority of Canon Stubbs, the English parish was only the Saxon town or *tun* in ecclesiastical form. The boundaries of a parish, or the district assigned to a church or priest, often corresponded to those of a town, and, in many cases, the civil unit of organization was lost sight of entirely. But the vestry meetings of an English parish, which, says Stubbs, were "primarily meetings of the township for church purposes," kept alive the old Saxon self-governing spirit and transmitted it to the towns of New England. In these vestry meetings, which, like early New England town-meetings, were held in church, many secular officers were chosen by the parish—for example, overseers of the poor, surveyors of highways, assessors, etc. Although there are the clearest indications of an historical connection between the parish system of old England and the towns and parishes of New England, yet, in all probability, the nearest approximation to the English system will be found in the parishes of Virginia and of the other Southern States that were settled by people belonging to the church establishment of the mother country.

"At the close of the French war," says Lodge (p. 38), "there were in Virginia sixty or seventy parishes of the Established Church, and these were governed by vestries, which were very important and active bodies. They represented all the local and municipal government there was in Virginia, and had attained, moreover, a commanding position in Church affairs. At

an early day secular functions were assigned to them by the Burgesses. They were to make returns of births, marriages, and deaths; present for crimes under the statutes against vice; command the sheriff to hold the election for Burgesses, and assist the county courts in building workhouses. To the vestry belonged the duty of 'proceeding the land' [like the perambulation of boundaries by the New England selectmen] once in four years, and upon them devolved the care of roads and ferries. Thus far they corresponded to the English vestries and the New England town-meeting; and, as might be imagined, became in time of revolution a nucleus of opposition. . . . At the time of the Revolution the vestries, consisting of twelve of the parish, were chosen by the heads of families, and were in the hands of the ruling class. Washington, Henry, the Randolphs, and the Lees fairly represent the kind of men who sat at these local boards, and thus controlled the sources of political power."

The history of the local institutions of the South is yet to be written. It is a good field of investigation for the rising generation of students in that section of the country. There are county and parish records preserved in Richmond and elsewhere that will throw fresh light upon this subject, which assumes an ever-increasing interest as constitutional history works downwards to the protoplasm of state-life.

A SOLDIER OF THE OLD SCHOOL.—II.*

COLONEL CAMPBELL became Sir Colin Campbell for his services during the Punjab campaign. He regarded his military career as finished, and two years after the close of the campaign he resigned his Indian command and returned to England with the intention of immediately retiring from the service.

"They have," he writes to his friend Colonel Hope Grant, "made me a K.C.B. I may confess to you I would much rather have got a year's batta, because the latter would enable me to leave this country a year sooner, and to join some friends of my early days whom I love very much, and in whose society I would like to spend the period which may yet remain to me to live between the camp and the grave. The day I leave this country will terminate my military career."

The old soldier little thought that the most crowded and eventful part of that military career lay just ahead of him. When he arrived at Cawnpore seven years afterward, to take command of the force assembling for the relief of Lucknow, he met there his old friend Hope Grant. "You little expected," said the latter, "when I last heard from you, that you would be appointed commander-in-chief in India." "I should," replied Sir Colin, "as soon have thought to be made Archbishop of Canterbury." Sir Colin returned to England just when the nation had made up its mind to sacrifice forty thousand soldiers and about seventy millions of money in defence of that beneficent potentate, the Sultan of Turkey. Sir Colin being offered a command in the war thought no more of retiring from the army, at least for the present. He was placed in command of the Highland brigade, and commanded it at the battle of the Alma. In a letter to one of his friends he gives a clear and interesting account of his share in that battle:

"The account of the passage of the Alma and action fought on the left bank, on which the Russian army was very strongly posted and intrenched, will have reached you before this can arrive in England. The First Division formed the extreme left of our army, and was in immediate support of the Light Division. My brigade was on the left of the Guards. The Alma itself is not of any width, and is fordable in most parts; but the bottom through which it flows is covered with vineyards and garden enclosures, all of which were under the fire of the enemy's batteries. Their guns were of large calibre, and quite overpowered the fire of our nine-pounders. When the Light Division was ordered to advance we (the First Division) followed in close support. In a gigantic gorge, immediately in front of the Light Division, the enemy had made a large circular redoubt, protected on each side by artillery on the heights above and on either side, covered on its flanks and its front by a direct as well as an enfilading fire. This artillery was supported by numerous and large masses of troops near their guns, and also by other large masses in rear on the inward slopes of the heights on which they were posted. These heights extended far to the enemy's right, with an open valley, without bush or tree to afford cover or protection from their fire down the slope to the bank of the river, on which we had to form, and to advance to the attack after crossing. The vineyards and garden enclosures in the narrow valley through which the river runs completely broke the formation of the troops. They passed through in a disorderly manner, necessarily; but the left bank being high, I was enabled to collect my right regiment (the Forty-second) in a goodly number under its cover. . . . On gaining the summit I observed a large portion of the Light Division advancing to attack the redoubt, which was a good deal to the right of my right regiment. . . . I hastened the formation of my own right regiment, for the other two were still struggling through the difficult bottom from which I had emerged. . . . The Forty-second continued its advance, followed, as I had previously ordered, by the other two regiments (Ninety-third and Seventy-ninth) in echelon, forming in that order as they gained in succession the summit on the left bank of the Alma. On gaining the heights we found the enemy, who had retreated from the redoubt, attempting to form upon two large masses of troops that were advancing over the plateau to meet the attack of the Forty-second. The men

were too much blown to think of charging, so they opened fire while advancing in line, at which they had been practised, and drove, with cheers and a terrible loss, both masses, and the fugitives from the redoubt, in confusion before them. Before reaching the inner crest of these heights another heavy mass of troops came forward against the Forty-second, and these were disposed of in the same way as the two first we encountered. I halted the regiment on the inner crest of the heights we had gained, as I have described, when two large bodies came down from the right of the enemy's position direct on the left flank of the Forty-second. Just at this moment the Ninety-third showed itself coming over the table of the heights and attacked these bodies, who did not yield readily. The Ninety-third, whom I had great difficulty in restraining from following the enemy, had only time to inflict great loss, when two bodies of fresh infantry, with some cavalry, came boldly forward against the left flank of the Ninety-third; when, thinking (as in the case of the flank attack on the Forty-second), of the dispositions I should make to meet it, the Seventy-ninth made its appearance over the hill, and went at these troops with cheers, causing them great loss, and sending them down the hillside in great confusion. . . . Lord Raglan came up afterwards and sent for me. When I approached him I observed his eyes to fill and his lips and countenance to quiver. He gave me a cordial shake of the hand, but he could not speak. The men cheered very much. I told them I was going to ask the commander-in-chief a great favor—that he would permit me to have the honor of wearing the Highland bonnet during the rest of the campaign, which pleased them very much; and so ended my part in the fight of the 20th instant."

When the siege of Sebastopol was established, to Sir Colin Campbell, in co-operation with the French Marshal Vinoy, was entrusted the duty of protecting the rear of the allied armies at Balaclava. Sir Colin Campbell was an accomplished French linguist, and a friendship sprang up between him and Vinoy which continued unimpaired till the death of Sir Colin. The command at Balaclava involved incessant labor and watchfulness, but was not so harassing, or exposed to such constant danger, as the duty in the trenches. Towards the close of the siege the Highland brigade was marched to the front, and Sir Colin Campbell accompanied it. It acted as a reserve when the British delivered their unsuccessful assault on the Great Redan. Sir Colin condemns this operation as insane.

"The column," he writes, "was to be preceded by forty ladders, and the work to be entered by escalade. . . . Was it to be supposed that such a work, defended by Russian soldiers, could be carried by forty men presenting themselves on the ramparts from forty ladders, even allowing that we had succeeded in bringing the whole party to the scarp of the work and placing them against it—a most impossible event under the fire of artillery and musketry to which our troops would be exposed?"

He bears generous and ample testimony to the bravery with which Sebastopol was defended, and the skill and humanity with which its final evacuation was effected:

"These same Russians, it must be acknowledged, made a noble defence; and surely never was an operation in retreat from a difficult position so wonderfully well managed. . . . I cannot conceive anything more perfect or more complete in every detail than the mode and manner in which they accomplished the retreat and withdrawal from Sebastopol, and transport of their troops across the harbor. I found the Great Redan abandoned at one A.M. I dared not occupy it, from the numbers of explosions taking place all around, before daylight; but while the enemy fired every magazine along the line of their defences, they did not touch their magazines in the Great Redan—an act of great humanity, for the whole of our wounded who remained in the ditch and our trenches would have been destroyed. Indeed, some of our wounded were carefully dressed and placed in safety, before the Russians left the Redan, from the fire of our own shells, which were directed against the interior of the work after the attack had failed."

On the close of the Crimean War Sir Colin Campbell reverted to his determination to leave the service, but still another stirring episode had to be passed through before his career as a soldier terminated. The Indian mutiny broke out in 1857, and he was offered the chief command. He had just before refused the command of the China expedition, on the ground of advancing age and failing health; but he felt that it would be dishonorable to hold back when the nation was inviting his assistance in the midst of such a catastrophe as the Sepoy revolt. The day after the offer was made to him he was on his way to Calcutta. The best part of Lieut.-Gen. Shadwell's two volumes are taken up with an account of Lord Clyde's Indian campaigns, and here it is that he has most grievously misunderstood the duties of a biographer. Of these campaigns we have read enough, and more than enough, in the thousand and one narratives which have been published concerning them in the form of despatches, histories, memoirs, personal narratives, etc. What we now desire to know is something regarding Lord Clyde himself. This most legitimate desire his biographer studiously ignores, and merely adds one more history to those already in print on the same subject. This history is prolix and wearisome to the last degree; it is without novelty of any kind, being no more than a compilation from Kaye's history and other easily accessible works.

The fact is that biography is a species of literature which ought never to be entrusted to an inexperienced writer, and, least of all, to an inexperienced writer who is also a military man. Lieut.-Gen. Shadwell was an inti-

* 'The Life of Colin Campbell, Lord Clyde. By Lieut.-General Shadwell, C.B.' 2 vols. London: Blackwood & Sons. 1881.

mate friend, through life, of Lord Clyde, but beyond the assurance in the preface that this was so there is absolutely nothing in the book which would cause a reader to surmise it. He tells us nothing about his hero which any one might not have learned from books. To say that we get no clearer knowledge of Lord Clyde from General Shadwell's biography than from many a book already in print is to understate the case; we get very much less. The following passages, taken at random from Mr. Russell's 'Diary in India,' reveal the man to us more vividly than the whole of General Shadwell's bulky biography:

"I could not but be struck with the admirable *personnel* of our officers as they stood chatting in groups to-day. Sir Colin, spite of a slight stoop, is every inch a soldier in look and bearing—spare, muscular, well-poised on small, well-made feet, to which some utilitarian boot-maker has done scant justice and given plenty of leather; one arm held straight down by the side, with clenched fist, the other used with easy gesture; his figure shows little trace of fifty years of the hardest and most varied service beyond that which a vigorous age must carry with it; the face is marked, indeed, with many a seam across the brow, but the mouth, surmounted by a trimmed, short moustache, is clean-cut and firm, showing a perfect set of teeth as he speaks; the jaw, smooth and broad, is full of decision; the eye, of the most piercing intelligence, full of light and shrewdness."

"It was late when we broke up. . . . The tents shone like cones of snow in the light; no sentry challenged as I approached the main street; not a voice could be heard; but on looking towards the end I saw one solitary figure pacing up and down in solitary thought. As I got nearer I recognized the well-known and peculiar light, soldierly step and figure of Sir Colin, who was, perhaps, pursuing the same train of thought that Shakspeare attributes to Henry before the day of St. Crispin. We had a long and interesting conversation. He laid the greatest stress on the all-importance of handling soldiers judiciously when they are taken under fire for the first time. 'It may take years to make infantry which has once received a severe check feel confidence in itself again; indeed it will never be done, perhaps, except by most careful handling. It is still longer before cavalry once beaten recover the dash and enterprise which constitute so much of their merit.' I understood him to allude to the conduct of some of the regiments under Windham at Cawnpore, which had been engaged in two unsuccessful assaults against the Redan. The variety of illustration, the keenness and excellence of reasoning, which distinguish Sir Colin's remarks on military matters, render his conversation very instructive and delightful. So eager is he when engaged in a demonstration that he cares not for time or place. So, to-night, he took me into his tent to show me some papers, late as it was; but he could not find them, and I bowed myself to bed."

Lord Clyde was not a soldier of original genius, but he was, as Sir Charles Napier designated him, "war-bred"; he may have learned much from books, but all that he had so learned had been tested in the school of experience; and the management of troops under fire was an art which he knew, as a skilled artisan may be said to know the craft at which he has been working all his life.

Epochs of Modern History. Frederic the Great and the Seven Years' War. By F. W. Longman, Balliol College, Oxford. (New York: Charles Scribner's Sons. 1881.)—There is perhaps no period of history better worth studying from a purely intellectual point of view than the Seven Years' War and the career of Frederic the Great. The events are compact and stand in no close connection—except so far as such connection must necessarily exist in historical events—with either those that went before or those that followed. The hero of the war is one of the great men of history, equally great as a statesman and as a general; so that, whether it is the building-up of Prussia from a petty kingdom to a great power or the masterly application of the rules of military science, the student is all the time dealing with the work of a master mind. Frederic the Great may rank with Richelieu and Cavour as a statesman, with Alexander and Napoleon as a general. Moreover—and this is, in our point of view, another advantage—the interest is a dry and purely intellectual one. The reader is not called upon to sympathize. There is no cause at stake, only the dynastic interests of kings. The religious controversy which kindled the fiercest wars in the century before had died away; the revolutionary movement which has inspired most of the wars of the present century had not begun. The Protestant reader may feel a languid satisfaction in the protection afforded to Protestants in Silesia; German patriots hail the beginnings of a German nation; we Americans cannot help rejoicing over victories in Saxony and Bohemia which helped Wolfe in his conquest of Canada; but these are only dull and distant echoes of the profound and personal feeling with which one reads of William the Silent, Cromwell, or Napoleon. We do not like Frederic; we do not dislike him especially; for this very reason he is all the better fitted to be an object of study.

Mr. Longman's history of this interesting period is excellent in all respects, although the closing years of Frederic's life are rather more compressed than desirable. This is very excusable, considering the great extent and variety of the events that had to be comprised in the work. It should be remembered, further, that these closing years really belong to another series of events, and that Frederic's career may be said to have closed with the

Treaty of Hubertsburg. Indeed, one is surprised at the fulness and comprehensiveness with which events so distant from one another and each of such magnitude—as the conquests of Clive and of Wolfe, the campaigns of Frederic, and the party changes in England—are narrated. Of all these we have accounts which, if brief, are very satisfactory. The two vital moments in Frederic's career, those which have stamped his memory with reprobation, are the seizure of Silesia and the partition of Poland. The remarks upon both of these are excellent, and we think just; still, in questions of such importance, we should have been glad of somewhat greater fulness. Perhaps it was not necessary with regard to Poland, as to which the judgment of history is positive. With the Silesian war it is different. This has been almost as unanimously condemned, and yet it is certain that Frederic himself regarded his claims as valid, and that many modern historians justify him. Mr. Longman says that they were "certainly valid in themselves; their weak point was the length of time they had lain dormant" (p. 46). He gives very good reasons for this opinion, but we wish he could have found space to discuss the question more at length. There are good maps and plans of battles, and an index.

Principles of Contract at Law and in Equity. By Frederick Pollock, LL.D. First American from the second English edition, with notes by Gustavus H. Wald, of the Cincinnati Bar. (Cincinnati: Robert Clarke & Co. 1881.)—This is, strictly speaking, a book for professional use, and a valuable one; but the rather broad philosophical treatment of the subject gives it a freshness and originality which will make it merit a more general reading than books of technical law usually get. The effort to bring together the doctrines of the common law and those of courts of equity relating to the subject of contracts implied a departure from beaten tracks and a discussion of fundamental principles of rights and of obligations. The breaking-down of the barrier between the courts of law and of chancery which is practically accomplished both in England and in this country, produced a conscious want of such a treatise on the law of contracts as should blend into one system the remedies of both tribunals, and exhibit them, not as merely concurrent or correlated, but as the consistent forms of development of the same principles of justice. Pollock's 'Principles of Contract' has already been recognized in England and in this country as an able effort to supply the need referred to. He has made good use of the codification known as the Indian Contract Act, to supply and suggest terse definitions and distinctions, and has, as he modestly says, referred occasionally to Roman, American, and Continental law in elucidation of his theme. These things have given the volume a character of its own, and will make it welcome to the library shelves of many a student of the philosophy of law outside the regular members of the profession. Its position as a working lawyer's text-book is, meanwhile, solidly established.

The American edition has been annotated in a most conscientious and intelligent manner by a careful collation of the more recent decisions in both England and America, and is especially full in its references to cases reported in the United States.

Flags. Some Account of their History and Uses. By A. Macgeorge. (London: Blackie & Son; New York: Scribner & Welford. 1881.)—In writing on the flag it seems to be difficult to avoid the temptation to digress into the endless scenes and events with which it has been associated. Mr. Macgeorge, however, keeps his subject skilfully in hand without trying to exhaust it. This elegant little volume, agreeable in size, admirable in type, and beautiful in illustration, gives a brief summary of military emblems from the earliest references in authentic history to the establishment of the present flags of the principal nations of Christendom. The account of our own national flag is concise and, in the main, correct. It is, however, wrong in stating that the stars in the union are always arranged in parallel rows. This is true of our Navy flags, but in the Army they are generally set in one large star. It is also mistaken in saying that the flag of Liberia is the same as ours, with the exception of having but one star in the union. In fact, the Liberian flag has only eleven stripes, while ours has thirteen.

Most attention is naturally paid to the British flag, of which the sketch given shows much general knowledge as well as technical learning—e.g., in the curious and entertaining information as to the proper use of flags in warfare, international etiquette, false colors, manifestations of surrender, and kindred points. The author maintains, with much heraldic learning, that the flag of Great Britain is not conformed to the minute of the king in council by which it was established, and that Garter King-of-Arms, when referred to, could not deny this, but that he very properly declined the responsibility of advising a change. The error consists in the width of the white border or fimbriation of the St. George's cross. A similar mistake is indicated in the omission of St. Andrew's cross entirely from the penny coin. A discussion of the propriety of the precedence of the arms of England on the royal standard introduces as an argument the familiar verses:

"The lion and the unicorn
Were fighting for the crown;
The lion beat the unicorn
All round the town."

Mr. Macgeorge does not consider this conclusive. The version is inconsistent alike with patriotism and with historical accuracy:

"It is certainly not the correct one. The true version, familiar to every boy in Scotland, is more impartial and it has more fun in it. It runs thus:

"The lion and the unicorn
Fighting for the crown,
Up came a little dog
And knocked them both down,"

the 'little dog' being the small lion which stands defiantly on the crown and constitutes the royal crest at the top of the achievement."

It is, however, painfully evident that, no matter how clearly Mr. Macgeorge may show England the error of her ways in respect to her union and her coin, we may be sure she will continue to see the right but still the wrong pursue.

Adam Smith. By J. A. Farrer. (New York: G. P. Putnam's Sons. 1881.)—This work forms the first of a series on English Philosophers, the primary object of which, as defined in the editor's preface, is to place before the reader an exposition of the treatment by each philosopher of the problems with which he dealt. Each volume of the series is to be issued "as a complete and integral work, entirely independent of the rest, except in form and general method of treatment." At the same time, "it is hoped that the series, when complete, will supply a comprehensive history of English philosophy." This hope seems to us unreasonable, however valuable the separate volumes may prove as aids to students of philosophy. The execution of the present work, unfortunately, falls far short of realizing the promise of its conception. The reader whose attention is limited to one part only of Adam Smith's doctrines is in danger of losing sight of the comprehensive character of his system, and of ignoring the broad deductive element which underlies every branch of it, and the history of which affords a clue to many apparent anomalies. Thus, the 'Theory of Moral Sentiments,' with which the present volume is exclusively occupied, represents Adam Smith's conclusions in one department only of philosophy; but the same principles on which his ethical doctrines are founded also determined his views on the social, jurial, and political problems to which his speculations extended.

In an historical introduction we should like to be shown something more than the points of agreement or disagreement between Adam Smith and his immediate predecessors. Adam Smith, who, as Mr. Farrer indicates, was considerably influenced by his intercourse with French philosophers, presents in his philosophical writings a striking example of the conflict between two diametrically opposite methods of philosophical investigation. Mr. Farrer's delineation of these conflicting tendencies is unsatisfactory, and we must object to his unqualified statement that Adam Smith's theory "represents the reaction" against the *a-priori* method of the intuitionist school. His emancipation from *a-priori* prejudices was very partial, and the independence of his conclusions is often conspicuously vitiated by his endeavor to find in the results of his patient and accurate observation traces of nature's design, so as to accommodate his conclusions to the ideals in his own mind. A passage in Dugald Stewart's biography of Adam Smith affords a striking illustration of the powerful influence exercised in the last century by the historical fiction of a "law of nature." Stewart says: "In most cases it is of more importance to ascertain the progress that is most simple than the progress that is most agreeable to fact; for, paradoxical as the proposition may appear, it is certainly true that the real progress is not always the most natural."

Mr. Farrer announces that "criticism will be suggested rather than indulged in," and to fulfil this design a short epitome is given of the criticisms advanced by Brown, Stewart, and Jouffroy. There cannot be much advantage in quoting objections which are conceived so nearly from Adam Smith's own general standpoint that they are capable of refutation from his theory. What the student of philosophy now needs is to be shown the kind of criticism that is rendered possible by the wider scope of modern investigation.

Throughout the book there is a conspicuous absence of independent suggestions from the author, and it might more properly be styled an abridgment than an exposition. This, we think, will diminish its value to mature students of philosophy. It can be but a questionable guide in the hands of teachers or to younger students, from the author's deficiency of analytical power and a certain narrowness in his view of Adam Smith's philosophy. The only class of readers to whom, therefore, it is likely to recommend itself are those who are not averse to instruction provided they can obtain it in not too voluminous a form. It may attract to the perusal of portions of Adam Smith's philosophy readers whose literary appetite is unequal to an attack on the original works.

Gedichte von Hermann Kletke. Dritte, reich vermehrte mit dem Bildniss des Dichters versehene Gesamtausgabe. (Berlin: Carl Habel. 1881. 16mo, xx.-468 pp.)—If no books but those of the first order of literary merit were ever permitted to be printed a second time, the uncritical public would be happy in the possession of a certain standard of excellence whenever it happened to see the words "Second Edition" on a title-page. As things now are in this respect, the critic himself is often at a loss to divine what occult forces contribute to prolong the life of poor books through one edition after another. But even the poorest book which is issued afresh at intervals long or short must minister to the needs of some circle of readers. This is the only explanation which occurs to us of the reappearance of Hermann Kletke's 'Gedichte.' We venture to say that very few of our readers, even those familiar with German literature, know much of Kletke as a poet, or perhaps know who he is. We volunteer the information that he was born in 1813 in Breslau, Silesia, the seat of the famous *Saengerschule* in the seventeenth century. He got his university education in his native city, and afterwards migrated to Berlin, that Mecca of German talent and genius. In this, as well as in his present occupation, Kletke's name is connected with that of an illustrious predecessor. A hundred and thirty years ago Gotthold Ephraim Lessing, then two-and-twenty, went to Berlin and immediately made himself famous by the vigor and originality of the literary criticisms which he wrote for the *Voss'sche Zeitung*, of which Hermann Kletke is now the editor. Perhaps the familiar appellation by which this venerable journal is now known among the witty Berlin people, "Tante Voss," is somewhat indicative of the literary character of its present management.

Kletke's reputation was earned principally as a writer of juvenile books, one of which ('*Ein Märchenbuch*') has gone through a good many editions. The present volume of lyrical poems, ballads, and romances presents the familiar themes of love, friendship, youth, nature, and life. The changes are rung upon them in the customary style. Judging them by any ideal criterion, we should have to say that very often the rhythmic movement of the verses has a very decided limp, a lack of melodious perfection. The sentiment, too, is often superficial. Depth, penetration, and force of thought are rarely to be found. Tolerably free from these defects are a few pieces among the *Gedenktafeln*—"Memorial Tablets"—to the great men of the past and the present. The genuine admiration which Kletke bestows on poets like Uhland, Rückert, Lenau, Platen—men of a genius greater than his own—is certainly creditable to him. So it must be said that his treatment of love is refined and spiritual. No young heart will ever be poisoned by his poems. The healthy tone in which he deals with the grave questions of life is likewise commendable. Had the author been wise enough to discriminate severely in favor of his best work, the collection would have lost much in bulk, but the satisfaction to the reader and the credit to the author would have been greater.

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